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FOREWORD

THE seventy-first annual volume of *Proceedings* records one of the most critical years in American education. It constitutes a historical account of the Association during an important transitional year. The proceedings of the meeting at Chicago show a new aggressiveness, a new determination on the part of the teachers of America to protect the rights of childhood as they relate to education. The year 1932-33, depicted in this volume, is one in which the teachers displayed unusual devotion to duty and impressive courage in the face of acute hardships brought on by political mismanagement and the bitter attacks of the opponents of popular education, as well as by the general economic conditions.

This volume records also the proceedings of the Department of Superintendence convention in Minneapolis, and those of the World Federation of Education Associations at Dublin, Ireland. Noteworthy addresses and minutes of business sessions of the other departments of the Association are included in this book. The volume as a whole constitutes a wealth of material for a study of educational trends and developments, and for general reference purposes.

Because of the abundance of material presented at the various conventions and also before the departments, it has been necessary this year to shorten most of the papers. Every effort, however, has been made to preserve the most essential parts of each address.

JOY ELMER MORGAN, *Director,*
Division of Publications.

ERNEST R. BRYAN,
Assistant Director.

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MEMBERSHIP OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

(Count made December 31 each year)

	1907	1912	1917	1922	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
Ala.....	55	93	64	708	1,150	1,331	1,635	1,580	1,485	1,204
Ariz.....	20	22	37	1,107	2,186	2,262	2,524	2,671	2,683	2,305
Ark.....	17	36	33	327	810	857	876	876	755	654
Calif.....	249	400	432	9,592	18,497	19,486	20,887	23,615	24,731	20,416
Colo.....	75	119	140	3,820	4,582	4,663	4,620	4,680	4,766	4,381
Conn.....	58	70	102	1,319	1,997	2,051	1,893	1,973	1,937	1,916
Dela.....	9	11	13	343	756	721	759	983	1,051	1,035
D. C.....	47	80	96	595	1,432	1,370	1,276	1,409	1,531	1,563
Fla.....	16	27	33	320	2,819	2,651	2,490	2,063	2,090	1,898
Ga.....	50	63	74	231	645	1,909	2,713	2,567	2,277	1,589
Idaho....	21	45	48	497	1,049	1,050	988	902	769	664
Ill.....	420	1,434	733	7,475	11,253	11,197	12,045	11,802	11,831	9,842
Ind.....	128	212	207	3,137	5,315	5,902	6,457	6,364	6,519	6,144
Iowa.....	93	131	185	5,944	3,342	3,342	3,218	3,324	3,634	3,605
Kans.....	84	119	195	1,399	2,789	3,020	3,256	3,294	3,567	3,225
Ky.....	60	84	85	431	1,321	1,362	1,428	1,613	1,579	1,469
La.....	42	51	54	932	770	636	807	819	733	685
Me.....	32	33	51	2,105	1,643	1,769	1,696	1,547	2,125	2,395
Md.....	55	77	94	529	952	882	1,592	2,102	2,059	1,854
Mass.....	332	426	366	10,696	5,646	6,340	5,191	4,828	4,801	4,634
Mich.....	139	199	251	7,466	11,256	12,230	13,652	14,541	14,103	9,739
Minn.....	145	175	103	2,281	5,773	7,518	5,805	4,540	4,424	4,945
Miss.....	16	36	38	156	274	361	560	669	569	473
Mo.....	216	263	512	3,234	2,973	3,219	3,287	3,097	4,425	6,165
Mont....	21	35	60	337	612	886	985	1,014	935	730
Nebr.....	71	128	114	2,651	2,376	2,313	2,331	2,407	2,379	2,313
Nev.....	4	26	19	310	778	753	783	803	694	680
N. H.....	30	38	38	625	431	454	337	378	515	558
N. J.....	198	219	280	3,427	7,173	7,678	9,080	10,333	10,359	11,183
N. Mex...	13	34	33	384	354	430	536	637	676	662
N. Y.....	948	890	1,230	10,031	8,666	10,315	10,522	10,481	11,461	12,505
N. C.....	23	55	62	323	716	854	1,066	1,277	1,249	1,026
N. Dak...	42	75	83	497	517	588	556	836	924	762
Ohio.....	349	484	534	8,383	16,785	19,490	23,850	26,469	24,859	21,523
Okla.....	23	75	95	1,252	1,801	1,781	1,880	2,135	2,460	2,474
Ore.....	19	64	154	1,041	2,816	2,794	2,770	2,808	3,003	2,792
Pa.....	325	454	535	6,279	18,459	19,316	21,206	24,363	26,794	29,408
R. I.....	32	39	47	215	319	371	336	345	386	400
S. C.....	22	25	31	89	633	635	1,168	1,286	1,075	759
S. Dak...	40	50	51	785	1,198	1,288	1,269	1,264	1,213	980
Tenn.....	31	61	60	615	1,115	1,457	2,215	2,029	1,776	1,827
Texas....	48	121	138	1,089	4,997	3,469	3,440	3,577	3,570	3,356
Utah.....	30	40	66	2,879	2,562	2,842	2,994	2,807	2,639	2,409
Vt.....	30	28	40	398	417	450	370	417	403	432
Va.....	40	73	88	1,082	1,794	2,015	2,010	2,107	2,546	2,644
Wash....	68	113	144	3,413	6,399	5,625	4,778	4,355	3,942	3,741
W. Va....	24	69	114	736	2,603	2,513	2,602	2,403	2,535	2,642
Wis.....	160	300	277	3,316	4,062	4,228	4,368	4,344	4,764	4,713
Wyo.....	12	18	22	1,271	1,206	1,146	1,100	1,068	952	841
Alaska...	37	93	161	161	171	152	188	192
C. Zone..	3	107	65	65	46	36	7
Hawaii...	1,168	2,593	2,624	2,573	2,630	2,669	2,618
P. R.....	27	79	86	338	1,212	364	137
P. I.....	519	83	110	117	125	127	121
V. I.....	10	105	56	11	8	8	11
Foreign...	110	205	140	203	223	199	213	204	172
	4,982	7,865	8,466	118,032	181,350	193,145	205,681	216,188	220,149	207,418

1932 MEMBERSHIP OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Estimated Number of Teachers Employed		Number of Teachers Enrolled		Percent of Teachers Enrolled	
Total		207,418			
New York.....	77,500	Pennsylvania.....	29,408	Nevada.....	76
Pennsylvania.....	62,000	Ohio.....	21,523	Arizona.....	69
Illinois.....	48,600	California.....	20,416	Delaware.....	69
Ohio.....	44,500	New York.....	12,505	Utah.....	52
Texas.....	44,200	New Jersey.....	11,183	California.....	50
California.....	40,700	Illinois.....	9,842	Ohio.....	48
Michigan.....	35,900	Michigan.....	9,739	Pennsylvania.....	47
New Jersey.....	27,300	Missouri.....	6,165	Colorado.....	44
Massachusetts.....	26,400	Indiana.....	6,144	New Jersey.....	41
Iowa.....	25,800	Minnesota.....	4,945	Oregon.....	40
Indiana.....	24,300	Wisconsin.....	4,713	Maine.....	38
Missouri.....	24,200	Massachusetts.....	4,634	Washington.....	32
North Carolina.....	24,100	Colorado.....	4,381	Wyoming.....	28
Minnesota.....	22,200	Washington.....	3,741	Michigan.....	27
Wisconsin.....	21,700	Iowa.....	3,605	Missouri.....	25
Kansas.....	20,800	Texas.....	3,356	Indiana.....	25
Oklahoma.....	20,100	Kansas.....	3,225	Minnesota.....	22
Georgia.....	19,200	Oregon.....	2,792	Wisconsin.....	22
West Virginia.....	18,000	West Virginia.....	2,642	Maryland.....	21
Tennessee.....	17,700	Virginia.....	2,644	Illinois.....	20
Alabama.....	17,300	Oklahoma.....	2,474	New Hampshire.....	19
Virginia.....	17,300	Utah.....	2,409	Connecticut.....	18
Kentucky.....	17,200	Maine.....	2,395	New Mexico.....	18
Mississippi.....	16,400	Nebraska.....	2,313	Massachusetts.....	18
Nebraska.....	14,900	Arizona.....	2,305	Florida.....	16
South Carolina.....	13,400	Connecticut.....	1,916	New York.....	16
Arkansas.....	12,700	Florida.....	1,898	Kansas.....	16
Louisiana.....	12,300	Maryland.....	1,854	Nebraska.....	16
Washington.....	11,800	Tennessee.....	1,827	Virginia.....	15
Florida.....	11,600	Georgia.....	1,589	West Virginia.....	15
Connecticut.....	10,700	Kentucky.....	1,469	Idaho.....	14
Colorado.....	9,900	Alabama.....	1,204	Iowa.....	14
South Dakota.....	9,400	Delaware.....	1,035	Vermont.....	12
North Dakota.....	8,800	North Carolina.....	1,026	Oklahoma.....	12
Maryland.....	8,800	South Dakota.....	980	Montana.....	11
Oregon.....	7,000	Wyoming.....	841	South Dakota.....	10
Montana.....	6,700	North Dakota.....	762	Tennessee.....	10
Maine.....	6,300	South Carolina.....	759	Rhode Island.....	10
Idaho.....	4,700	Montana.....	730	North Dakota.....	8
Utah.....	4,600	Louisiana.....	685	Kentucky.....	8
Rhode Island.....	4,000	Nevada.....	680	Georgia.....	8
New Mexico.....	3,700	Idaho.....	664	Texas.....	8
Vermont.....	3,500	New Mexico.....	662	Alabama.....	7
Arizona.....	3,500	Arkansas.....	654	South Carolina.....	6
Wyoming.....	3,000	New Jersey.....	558	Louisiana.....	6
New Hampshire.....	3,000	Mississippi.....	473	Arkansas.....	5
Delaware.....	1,500	Vermont.....	432	North Carolina.....	4
Nevada.....	900	Rhode Island.....	400	Mississippi.....	3
Alaska.....	154	192	125
Canal Zone.....	202	7	3
Dist. of Columbia....	2,857	1,563	55
Foreign.....	172
Hawaii.....	2,551	2,618	103
Philippine Islands....	26,167	121	1
Porto Rico.....	4,567	137	3
Virgin Islands.....	131	11	8

General Sessions

EVALUATING AMERICAN EDUCATION was the theme of the seventy-first annual convention of the National Education Association. The program presented by President Joseph Rosier constituted an evaluation of education on the basis of past achievements, present responsibilities, and opportunities for future service. Teachers from all parts of the country journeyed to Chicago, some of them at considerable sacrifice, to participate in this great convention which was noteworthy for its outspoken discussions, its frank consideration of the various crucial problems in education, and its large, enthusiastic attendance. The city of Chicago which has been a virtual battleground in the educational conflict was most hospitable to the visiting delegates.

The Representative Assembly authorized the creation of the Department of Art Education, thus making a total of twenty-three departments for the Association. All of the departments held their sessions either in connection with the Chicago meetings or with the Minneapolis convention of the Department of Superintendence.

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THIS MODERN DAY

MARGARET SLATTERY, AUTHOR AND LECTURER, BOSTON, MASS.

Character education worthy of the name means the creation and development of a Way of Life which results in good to the individual and society. All mankind is in search of it. Experiments in the quest of a Way to Live not based upon character achievements have been futile.

The human race is still in early childhood despite the thousands of years it reckons as its past. Men do not yet fully appreciate MAN, his place in the scheme of things, his relative relationship to things. Therefore he is tempted to evaluate progress and power on the basis of material possessions.

The temptation to move man constantly about on the stage of time and give to gold and goods the center is still great. But as Edwin Markham has pointed out in "Gates of Paradise":

We are all blind until we see
That in the human plan
Nothing is worth the making
If it does not make the Man.

Why build these cities glorious
If Man unbuilt goes?
In vain we build the work unless
The builder also grows.

Now and then the school has lost sight of the fact that its one supreme object is to fit the child to do his part in creating his world and to help him live in it in freedom and happiness.

We have been concerned with giving to the pupil those things which promise to make him a success in the purely materialistic interpretation of the word, with the result that suddenly both he and we have discovered that our house was built upon the sand. Since 1929, distorted, creaking, breaking, the house has drifted with the current. Not only the individual teacher, but the banker, the statesman, the industrialist, know that nations having builded in wood and stone and steel rather than in goodwill, justice, and truth, have builded in vain.

With his supreme task clarified and acknowledged the teacher has a better chance at the present moment than for many years to direct his energies in his work with pupils toward the building of those spiritual values without which all else is flotsam and jetsam in a whirlpool of confusion and chaos.

If the teacher is to be one of the main sources, in some cases the main source, and in others the only source, of power in the creating of a scale of values which shall mean the establishing of a Way of Life which can bring liberty and happiness to the race, perhaps it would be well to look at him for a few moments. The teacher like all other human beings must reflect something of the life of his day, yet must escape from its chains. The teacher best fitted to build character is and must always be a person

with a measure of background, a breadth of knowledge, imagination, resourcefulness, a sense of humor, idealism, and *belief in, sympathy with, and hope for* the youthful members of the human race. Even more than any degree which college or university can bestow upon him, the teacher who in this modern day can even hope to cultivate within his pupils enthusiasm for right doing must have a wide range of warm human emotions, guarded and guided by that balanced reason which means intelligence.

No character education is worthy of the name if it is carried on in hit or miss fashion without definite goals, methods and plans by which those goals may be reached. Character education carried on in one room, in one building, in cities here and there, can never mean growth and development in the character of the whole nation. We have splendid and outstanding examples today of successful community achievements in character building. These must be extended until the entire country is interested in and working at the task.

If the best results are to be expected in character training the community must make a persistent and relentless effort to remove schools from politics.

No parent or other loyal citizen should consent to policies adopted in the name of economy that mean overcrowding, use of buildings that menace health and safety, small children taken to school by bus without a matron, elimination of subjects necessary for right training, and curtailment of length of school terms.

The community dares not forget that in its schools at the present moment sit the homemakers and the citizens of tomorrow. The home has relinquished much of its task—that we know, and the church finds it very difficult to make consecutive contacts with pupils in order that it may carry out its program.

The community must demand high standards and adequate preparation on the part of teachers. After a period of trial, it must insist upon permanent tenure for its corps of teachers that there may be a sense of security and the teacher may share the community life. The salary must be definite and adequate. In times of strain where real necessity demands, teachers have voluntarily and generously contributed in common with all other citizens employed by state or municipality. They have a right to expect to be promptly returned to their salary basis when the times permit. These things the community should demand of their officials in loyalty to the city's highest good and the nation's safety and welfare.

Character education is a patriotic service of the very highest order. It aims to build a nation in which all shall be not only free but worthy of freedom and intelligent in the practise of it.

It is the teacher in this modern day who must lead in the building of character which frees from fear, and awakens and develops that passion for truth which results in personal and civic righteousness.

All his other tasks are minor in comparison with this one supreme thing which must be done if man is not to progress along those lines which at last shall destroy him. We need in our public schools today, especially in the great cities, men of the highest possible standards both personal and social. In the majority of cases we have them fighting bravely against almost overwhelming odds. In other places where the grip of the politician is strong and safeguards weak we have men wholly without those qualities of leadership which youth is willing to follow. We need in our modern public-school system men who have at least as one characteristic the qualities of knight-hood which Tennyson pictured so vividly when he said:

I made them lay their hands in mine and swear . . .
To ride abroad redressing human wrongs,
To speak no slander, no, nor listen to it,
To honor their word as if it were their God's,
To lead sweet lives in purest chastity . . .
To teach high thought and noble words,
And love of truth, and all that makes a Man.

But all teachers find it very difficult to appeal with success to standards above the general range of those of the community. Since all men learn to do by doing, *character education worthy of the name must help the child to do right, and provide and use opportunities for right action.*

The United States of America has but one serious menace at the present moment. That menace is not to be found primarily in any political party nor even in the unemployment and poverty which we have reason to fear, nor in the gangs who challenge our system of orderly government. That menace is IGNORANCE. Against it our public schools struggle. If the school is defeated in its battle the nation builded with such high hope will perish. If we hope to avert the danger which threatens we must act—and now.

You will remember that in *The Christmas Carol* as Scrooge and the Spirit stood together two children joined them.

They were a boy and a girl—meager, ragged, scowling, wolfish. Where angels might have sat enthroned devils lurked and glared out menacingly. Scrooge tried to say that they were fine children but the words choked him.

"Spirit, Spirit, are they yours?" he asked and could say no more.

"They are Man's," said the Spirit, "and they cling to me appealing from their fathers. This boy is Ignorance. This girl is Want. Beware of them both, for on the brow of this girl and this boy is written that which is *Doom* . . . unless the writing be erased. Deny it if you can!" said the Spirit stretching its hand out to the city. "Deny it—but abide the end—Doom." And the bells struck twelve.

These are not the words of an alarmist. They are fact. As true in this day as they proved to be in the days that followed the Spirit's declaration.

It is the teachers perhaps who more than any other group of citizens in the United States today believe in the possibility of eliminating ignorance and poverty from society. Teachers have proved their faith by remaining loyal to their tasks under heavy strain such as no other professional body has been called upon to endure. They have not laid down their tasks even

under circumstances which left them facing hunger and privation. The teacher has kept faith, believing that tho ". . . the tired waves are vainly breaking, the tide is sure to win."

The road from the jungle to the plains of vision and idealism is long, but man is making his way painfully toward the distant summits. When periodically they are hidden by the mist the true educator continues his work of character building, reenforcing his spirit in the words of Washington Gladden:

And fierce tho the fiends may fight
And long tho the angels hide
I know that truth and right
Have the universe on their side.

Note: Lack of space makes it impossible to include practical illustrations which were given thruout the address showing how in enlightened communities both in the United States and in countries around the world attempts are being made to meet the special problems of this modern day.

A CENTURY OF PROGRESS

ALLEN D. ALBERT, ASSISTANT TO THE PRESIDENT OF A CENTURY OF PROGRESS,
CHICAGO, ILL.

In certain respects our Exposition differs from others. One of the most prominent differences is that our Exposition has never had a bill it could not pay. That distinction, I hasten to assure, we have achieved in Chicago. We were confronted with the necessity of financing a project which would require about \$15,000,000 in advance capital and that we must procure all the capital in a period when all the world around was just as bad as Miss Slattery has painted it.

With that beginning, that the Exposition, thru the genius of Rufus Dawes, has been financed upon a pay-as-you-go policy, I bring you to a second point of difference. This Exposition has a theme. We believed that life had been largely transformed in one hundred years which are coincident with the life of Chicago. We believed that it had been transformed mainly thru the mysteries of science and we believed the world was in a considerable state of fuddle as to what it all meant. We were perfectly aware that while science had not fallen down yet it had not poured out unalloyed blessings upon society. We found that disaster accompanied every contemplation of one's good that came with science, and we were trained enough in sociology to be aware that for every benefaction of science, for every use, there appears to be some abuse.

The phrase, "Tomorrow is a race, a race between Education and Catastrophe," still has its value and its relevancy for us as teachers, and we dedicated this entire project to the cause of Education and devoted it in opposition to Catastrophe. This theme in its turn put upon us certain obligations. We were required to undertake what never before had been assayed and that which scientists were unwilling should now be assayed. We were going to

interpret the mysteries of science in terms which the common people could understand.

Again, the Exposition differs from other expositions in that we have changed the focus of our objective. We began by planning that the Exposition should interpret the transformation of life for the great body of people, meaning adults. After a little time that decision was weakened, and now our thought is very definitely that it doesn't make a great deal of difference whether you and the folk of your kind come to our Exposition or not. We shall achieve a very much larger purpose if we can draw to it the youth of America and trust to them to interpret its possibilities.

A great composite it is, a thing strident in its color and noisy in its music, filled with the motivations and movements and confusions of industry, cheapened now and again by base displays, and yet in the very heart of it are replicas of the Syrian peasant whose chief message to man was, "Come unto me all ye that are weary and heavy laden."

In the Hall of Religions there is a little cup. Most archeologists accredit it to the Third Century of the Christian Era. Some date it back to the First Century. It consists of a crude silver vessel in an elaborate silver holder. The crude vessel must have been very precious because it has had little pieces cut from it and because it was given so rare and lovely a mounting. In the mounting there are the figures of ten and on the backs of their chairs there are tiny writings which have enabled archeologists at the University of Chicago to identify these persons. One is Matthew, another Mark, another Luke, another John, another James, brother of Jesus, another James, the lesser, another Judas, another Paul. Would you believe that these men do not look like stained glass windows at all, rather like football players? They are aggressive, powerful, clean-shaven men, and as I dwelt upon them upon my first sight of the Chalice of Antioch, I marveled that I could ever have conceived of Peter as anything else but the type of man who, if he lived in Chicago, would be teaching my neighbors that it is not so much to have a good Republican organization as it is to have a good city government. And then I looked at the two other figures of the ten. One is of a lad about ten years old, the other is of a man of about thirty and both have been so evidently touched by so many thousands of tips of fingers or lips that the modeling has been greatly reduced, which I think is well, for as you look you are aware that you have come nearer, perhaps, than men have ever come in recent centuries to the likenesses of one whom the Jews called "Brother" and whom all the world knows as the Prince of Peace.

As I look—I go there every day—I turn and look into the tomorrow, wondering whether the real Century of Progress is that which is behind us or that which is opening before us, and something finer than science and clearer than philosophy and more energizing than all the dreams a man can have, something that men call Faith, takes possession of me and lifts me up and I realize that if there were to be no such soul, such heart of a Century of Progress, there would be no new Century of Progress to record,

PATRIOTISM, EDUCATION, AND RELIGION

CHARLES W. GILKEY, DEAN, UNIVERSITY CHAPEL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

Most of us have lived long enough to discover that people who are near of kin do not always get along together any too well. As the wise saw hits it off, we choose our friends, but God gives us our relatives! The reasons for this familiar difficulty are often plain to see—at least so it seems to those who stand outside the family looking in. Time and again the trouble seems to spring from some common family trait that always strikes fire whenever it hits upon itself in some other member of the same family with the same characteristics. A father's square-jawed stubbornness faces the same kind of a jaw in the son who inherited it from his father, and hard looks and hard words are called forth each from the other. Brother and sister inherit the same quick-flaring temper from some red-headed ancestor; and each is tinder to the other's touch. We bystanders shake our heads, and remark that if they weren't so much alike, they would get along together much better. All this is of course one reason among many why family quarrels are proverbially so long and so bitter.

Now my point is that this familiar situation is not limited to personal relations: that it holds likewise as between human interest, and between social groups. Human concerns that are near of kin show the same sensitiveness, and face the same difficulties. Nowhere is all this more evident than in the relations between two great human interests: the relations between *education* and *religion*. Of course, historically the kinship between them has been very close. Down the long centuries religion has been either the mother of education or its foster-mother, and has literally kept it alive in dark and hungry ages. Nor has this intimate relation been merely protective. Tho the functions of education and religion in human life are as distinct, and their characteristics as different, as those of man and woman, there is at the same time an inward kinship between them like that between brother and sister. They share and depend upon the same adventurous faith in the potentialities of people, the unrealized capacities of ordinary human beings. They share and depend upon the same unproved faith in the order and rationality and dependability of the universe of which we are a part. Cut the nerve of either of those faiths, and both education and religion will show the paralyzing effect. Yet at the same time, as education and religion grow toward maturity in the human family, they are both as sensitive about their relations with each other, and as critical each of the other's shortcomings, as brothers and sisters in their teens so often are at home. On the one hand, churches and states still try now and then to prescribe or limit what schools and colleges may or may not teach about evolution or social problems—or more frequently complain that they are not appreciated in the universities. On the other hand, there are always ultra-modern professors in every institution who are ready enough to call religion hard names in reply. It is a familiar family situation between brothers and sisters—both in their teens!

But tho they do not nowadays find it easy always to get along together, religion and education need each other just as members of the same family do, if their life individual and collective is to be enriched and deepened by its very diversities. Both will be the poorer if either one is read out of the common household. Certainly religion needs education. That is as plain from human history as it is in presentday experience. Only the criticism and correction that sound education provides can free religion from the superstition and credulity that otherwise so easily cling to its beliefs, and from the pettiness and provinciality that otherwise so easily circumscribe its actions. Education needs religion to quicken it with creative faith and kindling power. In these difficult days, when teachers by the thousands are having to dig down to some deeper motive for their daily work than just doing it for pay, because they're not getting their pay, and yet can't quit; when they have to face public neglect and forgetfulness and ingratitude without being soured by it; education certainly needs religion to provide it with its own distinctive contribution to human life—a motivation that does not depend upon checks or cheers, and is not paralyzed by either criticism or neglect; that does its daily work "as unto the Lord, and not unto men."

We might roughly hit off this partnership between education and religion as something like that between these two human hands in the doing of any good job. Our hands are not duplicates: neither one can take the place of the other—as we quickly find out if we try to put a left glove on a right hand. But together in partnership they can work far more effectively than either one alone. Try to wash with one hand alone when the other hand is out of commission, and compare the awkward and ineffective result with what happens when each hand can wash the other. Just so education must forever cleanse religion of its fanaticisms and its superstitions, and wash away the dust and litter of the centuries that make it musty and stale. Just so religion must wash away from education the dust of its daily routine and weariness, and revive its enthusiasm and its consecration; must keep it human enough so that it will not be buried beneath the weight of its own elaborate technics and its unintelligible lingo.

We must remind ourselves that this family of relatives who don't always get along easily together, but are nevertheless indispensable each to the other, consists not of two, if human life is to be rich and full, but of *three*: education, religion, and patriotism. That patriotism also is near of kin to the other two, there can be little question when we study either history or social psychology. Consider how down the very human centuries religion has intensified and supported patriotism; how steadily in our modern age education has appealed to patriotic motives for support. We must maintain and improve our public schools to train our citizenry as a whole, and our universities to train our leaders.

But it is equally evident that the going relations between these three near of kin have of late become more sensitive, and more critical each of the other. They do not always get along together very well. Each is quickly aware of the others' shortcomings, and ready to talk about them in public

with embarrassing frankness. Each is inclined to ask of the other a subservience which they are not by any means ready to yield. Their growing independence is evidenced, not only by great frankness of speech about the family table, but by an entire readiness to leave the family roof and shift for themselves if necessary to maintain their independence. We parents who have a family of children in their teens know the familiar symptoms and vocabulary well enough.

Education blurts out, in a burst of frankness, that patriotism has all too often doctored history into propaganda for bigger and better wars yet to come, and refuses to be used in the future as the tool of a nationalism that will be the end of modern civilization if it has its unchecked way. Religion chimes in to say that it cannot and will not admit the claim of patriotism to erect the political state as a new idol on humanity's altar of worship and supreme devotion that belongs only to God. It cannot admit that the state can do no wrong, nor make the will of the state master of the conscience of the individual. Outgrowing its own naïve belief in miracles, it cannot grant the state any miracle-working power to change wholesale murder into personal duty, or to make the hell of modern war a vestibule to a heaven to which it certainly does not seem to bring us here on earth. Then, of course, patriotism flings back that such education and such religion are subversive and dangerous, and that the Lares and Penates of the social order and the Americanism which the fathers bequeathed to us are all in peril at their hands. . . . Presently there are the makings of a first-class family row, with plain speaking a-plenty on all sides.

Of course, if any of the three is to have the dogmatic and final word, to which the other two must perforce yield obedience, there is little prospect in either family or society for a happy human situation in the years ahead. But parents and teachers alike, who have learned by experience that within both families and schools there can be plain speaking and real differences without the loss of that mutual dependence and contribution which leads to a life larger and richer than any individual can find alone, will seek to hold all three together during these next critical years. Education must give our human family the trained and critical mind, able to examine and if necessary to debunk the false gods to which both religion and patriotism too quickly bow down. Patriotism must give us that constant reference to the human welfare of ordinary men and women in this generation and in those to come, that constant emphasis on the sharing of life with all our fellows, without which both education and religion load themselves up with technics and lingos that are once if not twice removed from reality. And religion must always give us that constant lifting of our eyes from the imperfect present to the better but costly future, that constant revision of contemporary standards and ideals by others that are more truly divine, which the New Testament puts before us as the supreme obligation of human life: "We ought to obey God rather than men."

We have been speaking as if these three were abstract entities, or at best separate groups committed to independent interests. Let me remind you

finally that the cooperation between all three for which I plead can only be achieved as each one of us seeks in his own living to exemplify and harmonize their various claims: being ourselves intelligent and patriotic and religious all at once. And if it should ever again in human affairs come to a choice among the three, each one of us will have to decide for himself which of the three comes *first*—and be prepared to pay the inevitable price of his decision.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

IRWIN WALKER, MEMBER, BOARD OF EDUCATION, CHICAGO, ILL.

One immediately senses the sincerity of purpose of this gathering and I feel more than ever that Mayor Kelly is missing a wonderful opportunity to meet a wonderful lot of people.

Mayor Kelly is indeed sorry that he cannot be here today and has asked me to express to you his sincere regret. It is a pleasant task to me on behalf of Mayor Kelly and the city of Chicago to extend to each and all of you a most hearty welcome. We are glad you are here and we hope you will all leave with the thought of looking forward to many happy returns to Chicago.

Mayor Kelly has asked me to express to you his sincere appreciation of your selection of Chicago as your convention city. If I may make a personal observation, I would like to take this opportunity of expressing to you my sincere thought that Mayor Kelly is making a determined effort to bring about a more ideal situation in the public school system of Chicago. We know that your deliberations and your discussions are going to be of great value to education and we wish you every success.

I wish to have the opportunity this morning and the pleasure of presenting a key to the city but I am glad to say that that key is going to be presented by a group of beautiful girls of whom Chicago and Illinois are proud. We are glad to exhibit them as the girls of Chicago and Illinois.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

WILLIAM J. BOGAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

With pleasure and pride and hope Chicago welcomes this great convention of the National Education Association. It welcomes you with pleasure because it is naturally hospitable and enjoys observing the pleasure of others. It welcomes you for the opportunity to express its appreciation for your appreciation as shown by your presence. It welcomes you for yourselves, for the qualities of intellect and heart and soul and judgment that enable you, like captains on a sinking ship, to direct with coolness and sanity the rescue of the best features of our civilization. It welcomes you with pride in its material achievements so well illustrated in the Century of Progress and with deeper pride in its spirit. Here the abounding vitality of the American people found peculiar expression, and here, in the heart of the continent was

set one of the world's significant centers of civilization, a city transcending local limitations and gathering into itself the energies of a united people, energies whose deeper currents flow from the great historic cultures of the world. Her highest mission may seem to the stranger within her gates to be materialistic, but we who know and love her for her faults and virtues feel that her highest mission is to provide opportunities for new expressions of the profound spiritual and intellectual experiences of the race, thereby helping to develop a culture fit for the new day. Education is the best agency for this purpose. Therefore, Chicago welcomes you that you may help to save it, for education alone can pass the barriers of time and place and bring the wisdom of all the ages to serve the present hour. Chicago welcomes you with pride in its treasures of art and music and education. You may wonder at this pride in view of this city's reputation but you should know that tho Chicago reveals its growing pains thru crime, corruption, indifference, and cynicism, deep in the throbbing hearts of millions of its people is the desire to make this city, now fourth in the world in population and wealth, first in the world in beauty of soul.

Chicago welcomes you with hope in the influences that you may bring to save the vanishing ideals of youth. It has a hope that thru guidance and education of the highest type, the rights of children may be preserved. The task of guidance in education today is especially difficult, for hundreds of thousands of men and women who have been blessed with an ideal training for life occupations are saying pathetically to an indifferent world with eyes and hands and voice: "Brother, can you spare me a dime?" With the tragic panorama of the past and present clouding our vision we ask this question in terror: "Into what occupations shall we guide the youth of today?" The only answer seems to be a mocking applause from the idle hands so pleasing to Satan. Chicago has great hope that the deliberations of this convention may provide a better answer.

As good hosts we should not inflict upon you the many troubles that beset us except insofar as they may guide you in finding remedies for your troubles. Our troubles are great. Unpaid salaries, drastic economies, a hopeless future, wrecked homes, and starvation are serious enough, but for Chicago and the remainder of the nation, yes, for the world itself, there is the more serious problem of the future of youth. Starvation, poverty, and reduction of opportunity may be only temporary but there is danger that the greater problem of the future of youth with its problem of idleness may become a universal tragedy unless the peoples of the world give heed to its menace and its remedy. Therefore in welcoming you to Chicago, I, as the representative of five hundred thousand children, bespeak with great hope, your interest in this serious problem, for the world that cannot assimilate its youth will return to the chaos from which it was created.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

A. L. WHITTENBERG, N. E. A. STATE DIRECTOR FOR ILLINOIS,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

I am delighted to see such a splendid audience of American school teachers gathered here in Chicago.

Twelve months ago we were looking for someone with courage and wisdom to accept the presidency of the National Education Association and conduct its deliberations and its performances thru a year that even twelve months ago we were sure would be filled with trouble and anxiety. So the National Education Association looked to the hills of West Virginia, believing that from the hills may come our help. We found a man there who has thru a long series of years performed almost all the duties that are involved in a varied public-school career.

We found you, President Rosier. And it is with great pleasure that Illinois welcomes you to Illinois and to Chicago.

Mr. Walker, I should like to thank you in the name of Illinois, Chicago, and America for the assuring words you have brought to us from his Excellency, Mayor Kelly. We shall put great faith in the assurances that you have pronounced here. We really and genuinely believe that there will be a tremendous improvement in conditions pertaining to the teachers in the public schools of Illinois and of Chicago and of America within a very few months.

I have been honored with the privilege of extending to the school teachers of America a welcome to Illinois and to Chicago. If our greeting to you does not have the brilliancy and *éclat* that we may have extended to some conquering hero, I assure you it is none the less genuine.

Even the weather man is undertaking to welcome you with the same variety of weather that delighted us in Atlanta and in Los Angeles and in Atlantic City. It would be unwise for me to pledge to you that this delightful weather program will be continued thruout the week. About the only pledge I can safely make about the weather is that we are likely to have an abundance of it.

A highly cultivated Chicago lady wrote a charming little poem of fewer than a dozen lines in which she uses one word that is frequently found in a weather program. I am fond of interpreting the word "rain" as alluding to all the natural elements—the mountains and the plains and the rivers and the lakes and the seas. I am also fond of believing that this Chicago lady intended to suggest certain masculine qualities she most admires. Probably some of us who are women and all of us who are men would like to know just what masculine qualities this Chicago lady admires:

Who loves the rain
And loves his home
And looks on life with quiet eyes,
Him will I follow thru the storm
And at his hearth fire keep me warm.
Nor heaven nor hell can that soul surprise

Who loves the rain
And loves his home
And looks on life with quiet eyes.

In 1929 we first invited you to come to Chicago for your 1933 convention. We have renewed that invitation annually. We were sincere in our first and in our subsequent invitations. All along we have wanted you to come to Chicago. We rejoice that you are here.

Those of you who come from the older states of the East and from the South are aware that sturdy pioneers from your own state crossed the Alleghenies, or came up from the southland and founded Illinois. Those of you who come from the newer states of the West know that many of the early and stalwart pioneer citizens of your own state migrated from Illinois. Our family ties are interwoven; our problems are similar; our hopes are kindred; and surely our purposes are the same.

We frankly admit our difficulties. But many of our problems here in Illinois and in Chicago are problems confronting the teaching profession. More than that—they are problems confronting the existent social order. They are fundamental. We confidently hope that your presence here and the courageous aggressive program of this great convention here in Chicago will result in great value, not only to us, but to America.

Teachers seek to defend not themselves alone, but civilization itself. We shall go forward with courage and with confidence. The situation here and elsewhere is bad. But it is by no means hopeless. We may look too frequently and too long at the picture of selfishness and ignorance, of a few closed schoolhouses, of uncollectable tax bills, of unemployment with its long train of miseries. There is another picture. As children many of us studied the old-time geography book. We learned and recited some pages describing the continent of Africa. We forgot most of the description. One page in the old geography remained with us—a page devoted to the pictures of all the wild and ferocious animals indigenous to the continent of Africa. We remembered that picture, and to some of us at least, that picture of wild animals was our picture of Africa. We improved our knowledge of Africa somewhat as the years went along, but personally, I quite recently had a new picture of Africa—a letter came from Africa to the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction Francis G. Blair, and because of its contents was referred to my desk. It ran something like this:

To the Honorable Commissioner of Education
Springfield, Illinois
United States of North America

Honored and Respected Sir:

There is a young man sojourning with us who is a graduate of a college (naming the college) located in Illinois. This young man wishes to teach in our public schools and so, my dear sir, we would inquire of you the standing of that college in order that we may know whether it is safe to permit him to teach our children in our public schools.

This letter gave to me, as it perhaps will give to some of you, a new picture of Africa.

If we have produced in every American city a few very rich, but extremely selfish men, who would destroy the American idea of public education, we should remember with hope and with confidence that the overwhelming majority of our one hundred and twenty-two millions of people are loyal supporters of public education and are determined to maintain its sacred right to America's reverent regard.

If in the science laboratories of twenty-four thousand American public high schools you and the teachers you represent have thru a generation taught science so thoroly as to develop an army of trained men with the accuracy of scientific thinking; and if this army of men so trained by you is able to employ its inventive and creative genius to the extent that it has produced single machines that do the work of thousands of laborers and thereby throw out of employment ten millions of workers, let us remember that those same teachers have taught other curriculums in the same schools so thoroly that the beautiful spirit of charity and benevolence pervades and controls to the extent that another thirty millions of workers with reduced wages gladly contribute of their meager earnings to the support of the unemployed. That is one of your achievements.

If thru the results of popular education the work in America can be done by machinery and without the employment of a few millions of our citizens, that same popular education for which you and your associates are responsible has produced an orderly citizenship that remains orderly; a citizenship that remains loyal to our government and loyal to society while suffering the most intense privation. That is one of your achievements.

There is no great extravagance in the hope that the sacrifices made by school teachers thru the last three years shall not be in vain; that because of your heroic example and your good teaching, intelligent citizens are now addressing their attention to the problem of justly and fairly distributing the good things of life to all who earnestly and honestly strive to possess them.

Let us hope that this will be America's next great achievement. It will come largely thru your efforts and the efforts of your predecessors thru generations of good teaching.

Your reduced salary, or your inability to collect your small salary, in no way indicates a lack of confidence in your worth. Intelligent America knows that the colossal failure of all times and of all civilization is the failure in dealing with the offender against society. Intelligent America is coming to believe in the prevention of offenses against society rather than in the punishment of the offender. America knows that the American school teacher is an essential factor. May I quote to you a beautiful sentiment that was not written specially for school teachers, but which I wish to ascribe to you?

I have made to you many and many a song,
But none of them told all you are;
It was as tho a net of words
Were flung to catch a star.

It was as tho I curved my hand
And dipped sea water eagerly
Only to find it lost
The deep dark splendor of the sea.

Every Illinois teacher attending this convention is at your service. We want you to know that all the work we have done in preparing for this great convention has been a joy to us. Now we are to be rewarded by the rich compensation of having come to know you.

RESPONSE TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME

LUCY MASON HOLT, PRESIDENT, VIRGINIA EDUCATION ASSOCIATION; AND
PRINCIPAL, OCEAN VIEW SCHOOL, NORFOLK, VA.

It is with mingled feelings of sadness and gladness that we meet again in annual session. Sad when we do not see again those on whom we had learned to lean—whose foresight, wisdom, and kindness have made possible the work we do today. Many are not here whom we have looked forward to seeing. One we pause to honor—Dr. Winship.

We are sad when we know the thousands of children whose school life has been shortened. We who spend our lives with them know that when we cut them short on their preparation, and send them into the market places of man, it is the same as if in war we armed our boys with blank cartridges and paper swords.

Just as the prayer meeting is the pulse of the spiritual life of a church so is it true that in the body politic the way that the people support their schools is the pulse of their appreciation of their civic duty and responsibility to tomorrow.

In a very little while our places are filled by those who are in our schools today. When will we wake up to our full responsibilities to them? Let us be glad that ours is the privilege to help with this awakening. Let us see to it that the pupils now in our schools come out with a keener appreciation of their civic duty, of their debt to our public schools which are fundamental in a democracy, and with a realization that each one must do his honest part to help all. Let us teachers keep the vision. May we always feel that the children of America are God's bullion and we, with their parents, are the dies which stamp them coins of citizenship for tomorrow.

To the teachers of Chicago we render our tribute. In the hospitality which you extend to us you blazon on the pages of history these immortal words:

Not what we give, but what we share,
For the gift without the giver is bare.

We accept the gift of your hearts and lay our hands in yours that we may remain a unified force for the school children of America. The North, the South, the East, the West, let us love one another. We are brothers.

EDUCATION AND MODERN SOCIAL LEADERSHIP

WALTER DILL SCOTT, PRESIDENT, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY,
EVANSTON, ILL.

In America and thruout the world there is today no monopoly in social leadership. The aristocracy, the clergy, the army, the successful business men, organized labor, the farm bloc, the proletariat, are all discredited as never before. Just at this moment the world is looking to the professoriate for social leadership. No one should presume for a moment that our educators working as individuals, as faculty members, or as an association would ever create a monopoly in social leadership. It is most desirable, however, that we educators should make the most of the opportunity that is now ours. Our weaknesses should be recognized and corrected at the earliest possible moment.

Historically three tendencies have stunted the stature of leadership that might otherwise have been attained by educators.

The first weakness to which attention should be called is one that the educator shares with the golf club member. Golf club members, in selecting a site for a proposed club, select a site far removed from the abode of man. A hedge is then planted about the club grounds so that the members will be relieved of the necessity of being bored by the pedestrians or the motorists who might pass by the club. The boasted seclusiveness of the golf club is apparent also in the action of the educators. In considering a site and in the landscape gardening of most institutions of higher learning the site has been selected far removed from the centers of population. The monastery wall is also typical of the attempt of the educator to divorce himself from all the pressing problems of organized society. This historic tendency of educators to strive for seclusiveness has lessened the confidence that the citizens might otherwise have in the educators and, on the other hand, it has lessened the enthusiasm that our educators might have had in service to their neighbors.

Second, the attitude of snobbishness as illustrated in university clubs is all too common among educators. In the city of Chicago and in every city in which there is a university club, some of the greatest civic leaders are members of the university club. On the other hand, in Chicago and possibly in every city in which there is a university club, the university club is not the first place to which the citizens would go in search for cooperation in promoting anything of general civic interest. Members of a university club are very frequently afflicted by a superiority complex, selfishness, and a snobbery resulting in an over-emphasis on personal rights, and a disregard for personal obligations. I question whether more than 50 percent of the members of the university clubs of America exercise their right of franchise with any degree of regularity in city, state, and national elections. Most faculty members and alumni of American universities refuse to take any active part in either local or national politics. If the educators in this period of social stress and strain are to exercise leadership, they must not only take active part in all forms of political activities, but their influence should be so great

that in general all graduates of high schools, colleges, and universities would be characterized by their interest and cooperation in all local, national, and international affairs.

Third, and finally, the educator is afflicted to a degree by a characteristic manifest in the members of a large group of clubs, associations, and organizations, all of which might be branded as the "stand patter" clubs, in which intolerance is the most dominant characteristic. In former ages the progressive thinker in every field met intolerance, persecution, and even execution. It made little difference whether the progressive idea was in the religious, the political, or the physical world. Socrates, Savonarola, and Galileo were all martyrs because they propounded new ideas. During the last eighty years in the physical world new ideas have been developed with such frequency that the force of intolerance has been reduced to a negligible amount. In all fields having to do with human relationships progress has been relatively slow and every new idea has been looked upon with suspicion and opposed by the modern witchburners, heresy hunters, and superpatriots. The educational institutions of America are still afflicted with all too many obsolete teachings and methods. In possibly every educational institution of America these unfortunate practises are still continued that would be abandoned if it were not for the "stand patter" attitude which still characterizes a powerful minority of our faculties and educational leaders.

I have great faith in the leadership that may be provided by our educators in this period of social evolution. In every crisis in America, whether in war or in peace, American educators have demonstrated their ability for constructive leadership. I am convinced that this leadership will from year to year become more general and more effective, and to that end I emphasize the fact that in the educational world we should rid ourselves completely of seclusiveness, snobbishness, and intolerance.

ENGLISH IN LIFE AND IN SCHOOL

WALTER BARNES, PROFESSOR OF THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.; AND PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

The general principle which I am to discuss may be phrased as follows: "The English curriculum and the school activities employed in connection with that curriculum should closely resemble the most useful and successful practises of contemporary life outside the school." Or, to adapt a statement often quoted: "The English program in school exists for the purpose of helping people carry on more effectively those English activities they would be carrying on anyhow."

To make a curriculum in accordance with this principle is very simple. To decide *what* should be done in English in any area of school (elementary, junior high, senior high, or college) we determine the most common and necessary types of linguistic and literary activities among people of those ages outside of school; to decide *how* it should be done in school (the methodology

of doing and learning), we determine the standards, the technics, and the procedures employed in those activities among the most efficient practitioners of those ages outside of school. It is as simple as that!

Of course, such a principle is built upon and buttressed up by assumptions, assumptions a-plenty, assumptions galore. Of these I shall discuss only two, the ones that seem to carry most of the weight. The first is the assumption that a social order exists outside of school which inevitably propels children and young people into all the situations that invite and energize language and reading activity, a social order, moreover, which erects reasonable standards, and enforces them by social control. Now, whether or not this hypothesis is valid can be determined only by extensive investigation. My belief is that normal life in America does provide an abundance of such situations, and that it does exert a potent, "natural," social pressure. But it is my further belief that these situations are not varied enough to arouse all the potential drives and abilities of the children, that they are too haphazard for stable and systematic education, and that the standards of life need to be raised and perhaps altered somewhat thru the influence of the school and other educative agencies. From this point of view the school has a supplementary function. It should certainly hesitate before it runs counter to strong, universal, out-of-school motives and tendencies in language and reading. Rather, it should lean toward accepting them as desirable and admirable, at least as basic and natural; and it should bend its efforts towards carrying them further, shifting their direction somewhat, and raising them to a higher level.

Typically we English teachers have scant respect for the literary and language activities and standards of life. I shall not argue the case here, tho I must record my own conviction that in the long warfare between the practises of life and the principles of the school, the former have been more frequently on the side of sanity and effectiveness. But it is not primarily a question of whether we respect the out-of-school English activities and principles. Whether we respect them or not, they probably have a deal more influence upon children than we in school can ever attain. If we ignore or align ourselves against the movies and talkies, the radio, the newspaper and magazine, the popular song, the current books advertised and displayed everywhere, against the effective colloquial language of everyday life, we are rendered almost impotent.

The moment we "accept the universe," accept the English interests and tendencies, the activities and practises of the children outside the school as on the whole salutary and right, and conceive it our function to parallel, to enrich and supplement, to guide, to make significant and educative, to bring about more discernment and discrimination, to lift to a higher standard—that moment we place ourselves in a "coign of vantage," in a position that is tenable and strategic. Then, and only then, may we hope to produce in and around the school the natural incentives and the lifelike opportunities for practising and learning the arts of English. It seems to me dead certain that only by dealing with present out-of-school realities shall we succeed in

making our school enterprises stimulating and educative, for only so shall we succeed in persuading the "whole child" to go to school to us.

The second assumption implied in the principle that the program in school should be an outgrowth from the current English activities of young people, is that language and reading literature are *continua*, that the activities in these fields carried on by young people are closely similar to the activities carried on by adults. If they are not, then obviously, since we are educating children largely for the continuing common needs of life, we cannot accept the current English practises of children as the basic materials for our school English program. Insofar as they are *continua*, then equipping children with the attitudes, skills, and knowledges they need as children, utilizing the situations that crop up here and now is all our concern. We need take no thought for tomorrow, for "all our tomorrows will be as today."

I wish I knew with certainty to what degree the English acts and arts are *continua*. But common observation, as well as a few investigations, indicate that there are not many marked differences between the language activities of youth and those of adulthood. The motives are almost identical (and motives are exceedingly important); the elements and qualities necessary for effectiveness seem the same, tho surely there is more insistence upon conventional correctness in most groups of adults; and the types of language, conversation, discussion, story-telling, etc., used by young people and by older ones, are, I think, similar, tho undoubtedly there is more letter-writing, more writing of all kinds among adults. On the whole we are justified, I believe, in accepting the *continuum* assumption for language. No doubt there are countless eccentric variations which cannot be foreseen and provided for; but generally we may assume that if a young man or woman is equipped to meet his actual language needs here and now, he will be equipped thruout his existence. Anything that is now functional will remain functional; anything which is not now functional will never be functional in language. Skilful participation in life is the only preparation for life.

In literature, according to the best light obtainable, the situation is somewhat different. It is true in general, I think, that the reading habit formed in youth persists pretty well thruout life, tho probably it is often interrupted or even completely snapped. But I fancy that standards of literature, that levels of reading enjoyment are not nearly as fixed in youth as we have thought. We may be fairly sure that reading interests, and we may conjecture that reading tastes, vary greatly with maturity, with expanding experience, with intellectual and social development.

If this is true, what would seem to be important is that the habit of spending a part of one's leisure time in good reading be established in youth in the only way in which, so far as I know, it can be fixed, thru reading for immediate enjoyment, reading of that which meets one's current interests and is keyed to one's intelligence quotient and also to what may be termed one's "emotional quotient." As for the standards of the literature read, I would approve the rather negative principle of going no farther than the child's present tastes will sanction. This does not imply, of course, that we shall

not attempt, in season and out, to elevate and refine those tastes—and in this endeavor we can work great benefits. It does imply, however, that we shall not expect the immature student to be a full statured adult, with the adult's interests, and powers of appreciation. Let us take him where we find him, and tempt him with the choicest that his taste will approve and applaud, and let us leave the rest to nature and society, and to his own maturing.

There are other assumptions that I should wish to examine, but I must forbear. It is my belief that in general the situations, the activities, the standards and practises, the present doing and learning procedures of life constitute the most promising materials and methods for the school, and that only by falling in with them and lining up with them, shall we be able to effect those improvements over the life activities which undoubtedly can be made. As long as the march of life is in one direction, while the maneuvers of the school are in the opposite direction, just so long will the school, out of touch with life, fail to influence life.

Now if we should adopt such a principle, adopt it, that is, not as an alluring theory but as the guiding policy, the basic criterion for curriculum and methodology, certain drastic and dramatic changes would be wrought in our English program. Of these, for our present discussion, I select four: two from literature and two from language-composition.

1. *The curriculum should contain a large ratio of recent and contemporary literature.* I shillyshallied a long time over that phrase "large ratio." If we actually based our curriculum upon good, intelligent, out-of-school practise, both of adults and young people—and including, may I say, English teachers—possibly 75 to 90 percent of our offerings would be from modern literature. But probably most of us, even those who class themselves as liberals, would be satisfied with some 50 percent. That would be a considerably larger proportion of the time and attention than most schools now devote to modern literature.

Objections to a program of recent and contemporary literature which would displace many "classics" would be brushed aside, bruskly and blithely, by your thoro-going realist. He would pose but one question: "Do not intelligent, successful adults and young people in life read modern books almost exclusively?" If the answer were yes—as it most assuredly would be—he would continue ruthlessly: "Then your literary curriculum in school should be made up largely of the contemporary. It is not the function of the school to decide whether old or new books should be read in life. You schoolmasters haven't sufficient knowledge to decide that; and even tho you had, you haven't sufficient power to put your decisions into effect. The forces and pressures of modern life largely outside your control render you helpless. The commercial publishing houses, the army of modern writers, the magazines and newspapers, the photoplays and the theaters, the circulating libraries and book stores—any one of these has perhaps greater influence upon reading tastes and habits than the influence of the school, and combined they break down all opposition."

What arguments can we bring to bear upon such an adversary, we who have faith in the joyous mission of the best literature of the past and believe that our young people should be familiar with a goodly portion of it? We can, of course, flourish the magic phrase "literary heritage" meaning, I presume, that there is stored up in that elder literature the lofty ideals and traditions, the struggles, the aspirations and affirmations of the race—all of which constitute a rich legacy, which it were great pity for this oncoming generation not to inherit. But that, in the expressive language of that same generation, "gets us nowhere," provided that this literature has no appeal, no power over the emotions and what the seventeenth century people called the "intellects." For there is a biological heritage of more vast antiquity and potency than our literature, however ancient: a universal instinct, wrought intimately into our very frames, and this bids us pay attention only to that which is interesting, which has personal and immediate import.

If we contend that the literature of the past has higher literary merit than that of the present, we are, it would seem, on somewhat safer ground. But on the other hand, a fair amount of the literature of our times has much literary worth. Many reputations of the past have been floated down to the present on unexamined traditions of excellence.

Contemporary interest and appeal to any generation is the only quality which will keep the literature of the past influential in and upon that generation. A book is alive as long as it has life, and it has life as long as it touches the springs and sources of life in living people. Much literature of the past is, or may be made, alive and glowing with life, and piercing in its import for the problems of today. Such literature is forever contemporary; and whether it is read in life or not, it should be read in school. This is the contribution which the schools can offer to the else unguided reading activities of life outside the school. With this and a liberal amount of the best of the literature of today, we shall have a curriculum which resembles the reading desires and situations of life and effects that "modification of behavior" which is said to be education.

2. When we have formulated a curriculum of literature in school based firmly upon the best literature currently read in life outside the school plus that which needs only to be discovered to be read, our next task would be to formulate *a manner, a procedure of reading in school which would more closely resemble that of intelligent readers outside*. We need to know much more than we do at present about how good readers read in life—how they read novels, how they read poetry. But one fact must be immediately evident even to the casual observer: the good reader outside of school reads much more and reads it, generally, much more rapidly than we encourage or permit our pupils to do.

Now it is easy enough to raise a hue and cry against this mode of reading, especially when it is employed for reading great or even serious books. But the fact seems to be that the more rapid reading is the type employed by intelligent people (including, let us hope, ourselves) in most of the reading situations of life. Certainly it would seem to be nearer the ideal or the

practical pace than the slow, ponderous, intensive study-reading that we have favored in school.

Miss Coryell's investigation, which has been the model for several others, proves clearly that the so-called extensive method does not bring down the penalties we had prophesied would light upon the hapless child who reads a classic in a relatively short time. He emerges with as much objective knowledge as the child who spends much more time on it; he even runs the Regents gauntlet with his head, bloody, perhaps, but unbowed. Indeed if the measurements of the two methods were delicate enough, they would probably prove that the child who reads extensively obtains a great deal more of the profits inherent in literature—whatever they are—than the child who is constrained to read intensively. For one thing, he gets more pleasure, I should guess. And if he does, I would be willing to close the case at that point, inasmuch as I regard the receiving of pleasure as the one valid test of the successful reading of literature.

But we need no argument as to how reading *should* be done in school. We need only to discover how it *is* done in life—done, that is, by the people, including young people, who read much and read good books. No one can doubt that they cover more ground and at a more rapid pace than we have wished our pupils to do. Very well; let us admit they are right and we have been wrong, or at least that they are nearer right than we have been. Then we shall be free to act in our rightful capacity, and in a gracious role: we can help formulate a better technic for rapid reading, a technic which will perhaps preserve the gusto, the zest that now characterizes reading in life and add to it something of the desirable thoughtfulness that characterizes good reading in school.

But you will remember that I promised—or threatened—to make two applications of our guiding principle to composition and language.

3. An English curriculum based honestly upon the most common and most useful language practises in life would *reduce severely the composition work in school and increase liberally the socialized language activities*. For there is pretty reliable evidence that an overwhelming proportion of the language of life is not compositional in its nature. It is not discourse, it is not structured, architected language; nor do the compositional qualities of unity, coherence, proportion, and such like, appertain to it. The language of life is largely group activity, it is social behavior; and the qualities of effectiveness are social rather than rhetorical: adaptability, cooperativeness, tact, appropriateness, naturalness, humor, and the like. For most adults and young people the only types of composition, that is of planned, unified, consistent, *solo*-language, are: stories of the incident and personal-experience variety; letters; uninterrupted explanations; and occasional speeches. It is the social types, conversation, discussion, informal arguments, and the myriad brief, off-hand activities in bargaining, playing, working, carrying on human enterprises—it is these that constitute the language of daily living.

No one who observes these activities critically can doubt that for successful participation in them we need education, the education of doing under

conditions favorable to learning to do better. And no one can doubt that the school English program has failed to provide this education. One reason it fails, I think, is that most teachers conceive of the composition as a kind of general tool, a universal solvent, a panacea for all linguistic ailments, hence rely upon composition work as a means of teaching social language. It would seem to me that the only way to teach the arts of conversation, discussion, and other forms of social language, is to teach them specifically, not to teach something as different, as composing.

I hope I am not being misunderstood. I strongly believe that the schools should equip people to think thru the problems that arise in their lives and in their academic subjects, and also, as far as is possible, to write out and talk out their thoughts in connected, orderly fashion. But this is an institutional objective: it is not a peculiar function of the English department. I would have the English department, insofar as it includes composition, to deal not with composition *per se*, but with reports, articles, stories, with the specific types of structured writing and speaking that are found in life. We should regard the composition, like the geometric proposition and the logical syllogism, as both too narrow and too broad for effective educational use.

And while I am dealing with the thought factor in language, may I express my conviction that conversation and discussion are for most people the most common, convenient, and useful instruments for stimulating thought and arriving at conclusions. But it is, after all, not the intellectual elements in language that are most important in life; it is the social, the behavioristic elements. Not primarily for training in thought should we teach language, but for training in social behavior, in group conduct.

4. The fourth application of our general principle may be stated thus: *The acceptable colloquial language of life should be the standard or norm of school English.* That the acceptable—or accepted—language of life, the language that serves as the medium of communication in nearly all the situations of our everyday existence, is prevaillingly of the colloquial type is manifest. There is no time, and perhaps there is here no need, to define that colloquial language. It is characterized by loose, free-flowing sentences; by contractions and elisions; and particularly by a style that runs naturally and somewhat negligently into idioms, slang, and the easy diction of the vernacular. It is the proper because the appropriate language for small, intimate, social groups, and for common affairs. Typically, it is “natural,” light, picturesque, humorous; it may be gay and brisk and witty, or it may be suggestive of the deeper emotions. Sometimes, of course, it is and should be commonplace and trivial. At its worst it is characterized by inane and coarse slang, by gross language and grammar blunders, by slovenly enunciation. But whatever its faults, it is basically *the* English language, the most ancient and respectable, the most democratic, the most versatile, and the most useful means of expression and communication. All other modes or styles are off-shoots from it, are, in a sense, dialects of the mother tongue.

There is no question, I think, that the schools have generally preferred a

basic style that is opposed to colloquial language. We have striven for a style that is either formal and bookish or, on the other hand, literary—each one, of course, worthy of its place, but neither capable of performing the vast and varied services of the vernacular. We have tried to outlaw slang and the homely, vigorous, idiomatic phraseology of John Bull and Uncle Sam. We have refined and polished, we have clipped and pruned, we have scholasticized and schoolmastered our lusty English, we have made hair-splitting distinctions between linguistic tweedledums and tweedledees. And all to no avail. Unless the students of the subject are in error, the schools and the whole tribe of grammarians and keepers of the well of English undefiled have not altered by a degree the development and history of the language. The reason they have not is, that they have been opposing the very genius of the language; their tiny rules have been in conflict with elemental laws. The gumption of the people has been too much for the pedantry of the schools.

Not that the schools cannot and should not have a salutary and educative effect upon colloquial language. They can and should—and they will, as soon as they believe in it, respect it, trust it. The moment we quit, for example, the task of chiding back the waves of slang and begin to devote ourselves to discrimination, for ourselves and our pupils, between desirable and undesirable slang, we shall have effect. As soon as we cease making finical distinctions between *shall* and *will*, as soon as we give up treating as belonging to the same felon class the gross and the trivial, the venal and the venial, then we are in a position to help people use better the colloquial language they will use anyhow. Then we shall be aligned with, not against, the pressures and processes of life. And we need not fear lest the fine art of teaching be neglected. It is, I suspect, as difficult to master an effective colloquial style—a style both full-blooded and refined, both natural and thoughtful—as the formal style or even the literary style; as difficult and much more important.

The most notable recent contribution to our knowledge of disputed usages is the Leonard monograph, "Current English Usage." This was published in November, 1932, by the National Council of Teachers of English. But the fact that the National Council published the monograph is not to be taken as evidence that the Council as an organization approved the findings. The National Council does not consider itself an academy capable of ruling on points of usage. Individually many of the Council members regard the findings as acceptable and applaud the movement toward the determination of what is desirable current use, with the consequent elimination of what has been termed "old purist junk." But many members of the Council are opposed to many of the findings, and some of them are quite certain the movement is harmful. The Council *per se* regards this monograph as a sound, scholarly study, of sufficient scientific worth to deserve publication and distribution. It is somewhat in the position of the publishing company which issues books containing material which individual members of the firm do not accept, or it is like a graduate school which approves theses

because they are scientific, tho members of the faculty may not at all agree with the findings or the conclusions.

But what strikes a student of the subject as amusing is, that apparently many people regard the Leonard study as a bolt from the blue, as a new and unsuspected and subversive attack on established and sacred matters. As a matter of fact, there is not one of the expressions studied by Leonard which has not been in divided usage, some of them for a long time, with the issue clearly defined and the battle lines sharply drawn. There is not a new item or a new point of view in any part of the Leonard monograph. What Mr. Leonard did, was to secure and then to record and arrange the opinions of a considerable number of persons on disputed expressions, persons whose judgments had weight: linguists, lexicographers, publishers, teachers of English, and the like.

It seems to me, that perhaps the most notable and useful feature of the Leonard monograph, as well perhaps as a number of other studies in colloquial usage, is that it does establish, within its limits and for its own purposes, the importance and acceptability of the colloquial style. And that is all I am insisting upon. I believe the schools should accept as the standard and norm the effective colloquial language employed outside the school, and should then attempt to train children and young people in fine and discriminating use of the colloquial style.

I have stated and discussed the principle, and I have given applications of it, two from the field of literature and two from the field of language and composition. It is evident that many other and perhaps more important applications might be made. I am firm in the belief that if we would approve generally the best and most successful practises in the field of reading and language outside the school, and then would pledge ourselves to a program of improving those activities, we should all be in a happier situation. We should then bridge that unfortunate gap which yawns between the English of life and the English of school. We should be in touch with and in line with the great social forces that control. Conceivably, then, the schools would actually help the children to engage more effectively in those linguistic and literary activities that they are engaging in anyhow.

EDUCATION AND THE AMERICAN FUTURE

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The two phases of the crucial issue of public economy in its relation to the future of the schools and of public education in its relation to the future of the nation are inextricably interlocked, but I shall speak of them in turn, addressing myself, first, to the problem of public economy in its relation to the future of the schools, and, second, to the problem of public education in its relation to the future of the nation.

That it is necessary for public institutions as well as private individuals to tighten their belts in lean years may be accepted without argument. I have broken my lance as often as any other American against waste, inefficiency,

and the retention of manifestly obsolete public services. I lifted my voice and lent my pen in behalf of such economy when the economic skies were bright and the bloated statistics of a bogus prosperity tempted private individuals and public institutions alike to reckless prodigality. I think, therefore, that I have earned the right now, when the economic skies are dark and the stern fact of a depleted national income confronts us, to speak of the national danger that lies coiled at the heart of economy measures that are not dictated by a statesmanlike sense of relative values.

The necessity for economy is indisputable. The nature of economy is debatable. The form of economy may make the fact of economy either a national asset or a national liability.

There are those who think that for educators to speak now of the dangers confronting education and the other social enterprises of government in the economic crisis that has chilled and arrested the national life is a kind of treason to those who are wrestling with the almost insuperable task of balancing public budgets. In the minds of such Americans, budget balancing has been lifted to the dignity of a religion, and in this improvised religion they find mandate for the merciless inquisition of public servants who seek to keep the national mind reminded of those immediate human values and those long-time social responsibilities that lie behind public budgets and for which, indeed, public budgets exist.

I cannot concur in this point of view! I am not so blind as to assume that a nation can suffer an economic dislocation as profound as this without its institutions having to adjust themselves to its impact. I do not suggest that the teacher should be exempt from his just share of the sacrifices the time may necessitate even after a broad and socially sensitive statesmanship has given its best to the situation. But, in a phase of economic crisis, there are interests that lie beyond economics, and, unless these interests that have to do with the bodies and minds and spirits of the men and women and children of the nation are safeguarded in the midst of crisis, economic recovery itself will prove a barren achievement. It is quite as important to balance the nation's life as to balance the nation's budget. It is quite as important to prevent a social deficit for the future as to wipe out a financial deficit in the present.

The great army of laymen who are serving on the governing boards of schools, colleges, universities, libraries, hospitals, and kindred social institutions, on city councils, in state legislatures, and in Congress are facing almost insurmountable difficulties in making ends meet. The Banquo's ghost of insufficient public income persistently haunts their consideration of imperative public expenditures. These laymen, charged with the guardianship of these basic public services, must function in an unprecedentedly distracting atmosphere. A thousand and one competing demands beat about their desks. They are caught in the cross-fire of irrational demands for increasing public expenditures and equally irrational demands for decreasing public expenditures. They are told, in one breath, that the buying power of the period must be increased and, in the next breath, that the buying power of govern-

ment must be decreased. If, in this distracting atmosphere, they are to balance public budgets without unbalancing the life of community, state, and nation, they need all the help that can come from responsible and unhampered discussion of those forces and institutions upon the full and effective functioning of which the physical health, intellectual discipline, and spiritual stability of the future depend.

To prosecute such discussion in the midst of the direst fiscal difficulties that have confronted government in this generation is not treason but cooperation. Indeed, the highest cooperation we can give to the men and women charged with the appropriation of public funds is to hold so high that all may see the banner of those values that lie beyond economics, the values we can least afford to lose, the values without which prosperity becomes a poison in the nation's vitals.

It has been part of the genius of America that we have invested liberally in education. For this reason, it was inevitable that, when depression began to enforce retrenchments in public expenditures, there should come an unusual concentration of public attention upon the schools. For no large public expenditure can be exempt from public examination when the public income nose-dives to new low levels. Nor should it. But it is the business of social statesmanship to turn this depression-induced concern with the schools to constructive rather than destructive account.

In a phase of crisis, like this, there is always a flare-up of superficial and sinister criticism of the schools by demagogues who are willing to play horse with anything they think they can capitalize to their personal or political advantage. If the nation listens to such voices now, we may wreck in a year the achievements of a quarter century. But, by and large, the common sense of our commonwealths can be trusted to take care of their demagogues, at least the more blatant of the breed. But the most serious threat to education just now is not the obviously blatant demagoguery. The schools of the nation are today threatened with emasculation at the hands of dishonest reductionists who have subtly hidden themselves in the camp of honest advocates of essential retrenchment. The honest advocates of essential retrenchment are deeply concerned that the door to educational opportunity shall be kept open to the sons and daughters of all classes and all conditions of men. The dishonest reductionists, where their indifference cannot be traced to ignorance, seem willing to undermine public confidence in the whole system of free public education if their ends can be achieved thereby.

We have been stampeded into hysteria regarding public expenditures that bears all the ear-marks of the hysteria that swept our sanity from its mooring during the World War. And, broadly speaking, the same forces have engineered these two aberrations of the national mind, namely, the forces standing to profit most from these hysterias. Under the hysteria of war-time the greatest benefactors of society were supposed to be those who rounded up the most pro-Germans, slackers, and bolsheviks, and, in the round-up, anybody standing in the way of the forces that thought to gain from the world storm was pretty sure to be plastered with the label of pro-German,

slacker, or bolshevik. Under the hysteria of the depression period it is assumed in some quarters that the greatest benefactors of society are those who are today casting the most withering aspersions upon the servants and services of local, state, and national government.

I am not speaking of the honest alarm that many properly feel at the increasing costs of government, and I am not questioning the urgent desirability of eliminating manifest waste and dismantling obsolete services that may be found clinging like branches to the ship of state. This is all to the good. But beyond this honest concern with essential economy I agree with those who sense in the nationwide cry against governmental expenditures three deliberate purposes masking behind the cry for economy.

(1) The determination of a discredited economic leadership to shift the blame for the depression to the shoulders of government and thus to divert public attention from its own muddling mismanagement of the national enterprise.

(2) The determination to cut governmental expenditures to a point where incomes and inheritances will not face further tax drafts regardless of how drastic the drop in revenue from property taxes may become.

(3) The determination to stop by starvation the extension of governmental activity, to compel government to return to the simpler role of a simpler day, leaving to the leadership of private interests an unfettered freedom to reenact the ventures in irresponsibility that landed the nation in economic disaster and may land many of the idols of yesterday in jail or in exile.

In a time when honest economy is imperative, it is not, I know, popular to direct attention to these ulterior motives that parade in the borrowed livery of honest economy, but upon their exposure now the future health of the national enterprise will depend. And no group in the nation stands to gain more from such exposure than the realistic, honest, and socially minded leadership of American business, industry, and finance.

Upon the imperative necessity for economy in public expenditures there can be no disagreement. I insist only that we effect that economy with statesmanlike foresight for the future of community, state, and nation. It is possible to be quite as short-sighted in administering economy as in allowing extravagance. We can so easily economize blindly or let limited interests dictate the schedules of retrenchment. And this, gentlemen, is the grave national danger that lurks in our current concern with economy.

The country over, educators are being roundly damned by the blind reductionists for standing guard over the interests of the schools in the budget sessions of local, state, and national government. A certain type of newspaper and a certain type of politician would have it thought that the educators are out to feather their own nests regardless of what happens to the other servants and other services of government and in utter disregard of the plight of private business. If there be such educators they are manifestly unworthy of their profession. The vast army of educators thruout the nation who, in this crisis, are flying in the face of trumped-up hysterias by doing everything within their power to save the schools from financial strangulation and increasing political manipulation are doing so because their sense of relative values tells them that education is one of the supreme responsibilities

and functions of government; that, after the provision of relief for those in distress and out of work and the protection of life and property, education is the most important single obligation resting upon government in this crisis. It is to education alone that we can look to produce a leadership for the future that might conceivably use this magnificent machine economy of ours to free the race from drudgery, poverty, and insecurity instead of letting us starve in a world of too much food, and go workless in a world with a million undone tasks, suffering all the perils of scarcity in an age of plenty.

This is all I purpose to say on the problem of economy in its relation to the future of education. I am so completely on record, in the educational journals and elsewhere, respecting this issue that repetition here is, I think, unnecessary.

The deeper problem that makes the issue of statesmanlike economy so crucial is the problem of education in its relation to the future of the nation. And to this problem I now want to turn.

The air is, at the moment, filled with premonitions of profound change in the political, social, and economic life of the United States. The forces of change may be damned up by inflexible traditions until they break the dykes with a rush of revolutionary energy or they may be directed by flexible intelligence into a process of social reconstruction that will give fresh significance and assured stability to our national future.

Because I believe that the future and fortune of all of us now living will be determined by the outcome of the battle royal that is now on between the forces of inflexible tradition and the forces of flexible intelligence, I have chosen to chart the issues of this battle, and to indicate the role of the schools in it.

I am convinced that profound historic change impends in the life and enterprise of our time. I am not sure of the direction this change will take. We may be in for a long retrogression or we may be on the threshold of renaissance. The blackening of the skies that began in 1929 may have heralded a permanent eclipse of our national genius or these may be but the grey hours before a social sunrise that will warm and illumine our lives where transient disaster has chilled and darkened them. In either case, the America of tomorrow will be radically different from the world of yesterday's textbook or of today's newspaper. And what that world will be like will depend upon whether the forces of inflexible tradition or the forces of flexible intelligence direct our affairs in the days immediately ahead.

Our national life is just now in the fourth phase of a progression of events that has before in history brought whole peoples to the social crossroads. Unless I grossly misread the meaning of the last two decades of American history, four distinct developments in the drift of events have brought the American social order to its present critical juncture.

First, old philosophies and old procedures that had long dominated our political, social, and economic life fell into varying degrees of futility thru the failure of American leadership to keep them progressively adjusted to the new circumstances of this new age of science and technology.

Second, while this slump into futility was going on, new philosophies and new procedures, alert to the needs and adapted to the nature of the new age of science and technology, were being patiently and unobtrusively elaborated by scientists and seers whose historic mission it is to be the unofficial statesmen who, in freedom from the clamor of constituencies and the compulsion to compromise, blaze new trails of social organization and political action which the official statesmen may follow if they will.

Third, thru a long period of manifest maladjustment between the old policies and the new problems of American life, despite the heavy hand this maladjustment laid upon the lives of men, the masses of Americans generally clung uncritically to the doctrines of the fathers in matters political and economic.

Fourth, in the wake of the worldwide economic collapse, from one end of the United States to the other, men have been shaken out of the sterile serenity that marked their mood in the days of our jerry-built prosperity, with the result that today they no longer display their accustomed reluctance to question the major assumptions upon which their lives and enterprises have long been organized.

It is the mood of this fourth phase that makes critical the present juncture in American affairs. The tether of traditional loyalty has slipped as men have watched the ground-stakes of their social and economic orders loosen.

In the days of our phantom prosperity we were sleek and self-satisfied. We were well-fed and wanted nothing so much as to be let alone. We were impatient of those queer persons who seemed forever to be poking about the foundations of our social and economic institutions. As if anything could be wrong with a civilization that paid such excellent dividends! The missionaries of political, social, and economic readjustment got short shrift at the hands of the crowd around the ticker-tape.

New movements had, in the main, hard sledding. Almost the sole exception to this was the lush growing of bootleg religions and the rise of an apostolate of fakers who led thousands of otherwise intelligent men and women to believe that, in their wistful quest for the deeper meaning of existence, they could suck the juices of a living gospel from the dead rinds of ancient superstitions or the green stalks of bogus psychologies. Perhaps mankind will always rebel in this irrational way against an era that becomes so exclusively absorbed in the goods and chattels of a crass prosperity! At any rate, aside from this single exception of the gullible embracement of improvised religions, we were, until the chill and arrest of the market collapse fell upon us, snug to the point of blindness to the basic drift of our civilization.

The era of prosperity that ended in 1929 was, for Americans, an era in which new ideas in the fields of political, social, and economic philosophy did not sweep the mass mind. As the old Scotch phrase has it, the heather was wet, and fires did not sweep easily across the fields.

Today the situation is the exact reverse. The heather is dry! Disillusionment has done its perfect work! The crowd is again capturable! The man in the street is straining at the leash of old dogmas of politics and economics that have failed to keep hunger from his stomach, cold from his body, and fear from his heart! And men everywhere are fumbling blindly for the clue to some fresh departure in their common life! The mass mind is hospitable to the bearer of new policies!

Such a mood is at once a grave danger and a great opportunity. A grave danger if irresponsible demagoguery dominates it! A great opportunity if responsible statesmanship directs it!

In its present mood, the mass mind is willing to follow responsible statesmanship. It would prefer to follow responsible statesmanship. It may follow irresponsible demagoguery. It will take counsel of its patience while a Roosevelt gathers power unprecedented into his hands and cuts the red tape that has bound government to the hitching-post of inaction. But it will not unduly prolong its patience. There is, I think, a latent impatience close under the surface of the liberal patience Americans generally have displayed thru these difficult days. The mass mind will expect constructive action and creative results promptly to follow the freedom to act which its current mood has made Congress make possible. If the fruits of this freedom to act should fail visibly to ripen, the mass mind will turn inevitably to an alternative leadership. And it may be none too discriminating in its selection of the alternative!

We are past the point at which beating the tom-tom for obsolete traditions of politics and economics can either satisfy the mass mind or bring recovery and stabilization to our national life. We still have time to choose between guided reconstruction and unguided revolt.

I use the word "revolt" instead of the word "revolution" because there is a basic distinction between the two. This distinction was brilliantly enforced by the great Mazzini in his crusade for the socio-moral invigoration of Italy in the early nineteenth century. It was tellingly dramatized by the Duc de la Rochefoucauld as he stood with King Louis watching the Parisian mob storm the Bastille in 1789.

"This is revolt," said King Louis.

"No, Sire," said Rochefoucauld, "It is revolution."

Revolt was there, of course, but Rochefoucauld was right in reminding Louis that he was watching the profounder fact of revolution in which his people had set out deliberately to readjust the old tools of government, which were obsolete, to the new tasks of government, which were obvious. And this, as Rochefoucauld saw, was a more fundamental thing than mere revolt, a far-reaching process of social readjustment in which revolt was but an incident that might or might not take place.

There can be revolt without revolution. There can be revolution without revolt. In fact, the greatest revolutions are never marred by revolts. We do not want a revolt. And unless intelligence abdicates, we can face difficulties far more drastic than we have yet known without revolt. But, unless we are willing to run the risk of a lapse into chaos, we cannot avoid revolution, if by revolution we mean what we should mean, namely, evolution under the guidance of an intelligence that is neither enslaved by inflexible tradition nor dragged at the heels of ill-conceived change.

Changes are forever taking place in the living peoples. If flexible intelligence were always at the helm, a process of continuous and exact readjustment of our social institutions to the new situations these changes produce

would be kept going. The result would be that society would never come to dramatic turns in the road where it had to undertake wholesale readjustments of its policies to new situations that leadership had long neglected.

But, unhappily, this is not the way the race has functioned to date. There is always a lag between the swiftly changing life and the slowly changing institutions of a people.

It is right that there should be some lag. Otherwise our institutions would be in a continuous St. Vitus dance of change that would make ordered life and productive enterprise impossible. We do not want our institutions to chase down the street after every Pied Piper who has snared a new notion from the cloudland of theory. Most new ideas are wrong. The race is lucky if experience ratifies as true one out of every thousand new theories it evolves. The overwhelming majority of the ideas that have survived the stress and storm of the centuries are right. We must build our lives—individual and institutional—mainly on ideas the race has hammered out on the anvil of experience. No generation can expect to add more than a little to the wisdom of its ancestors.

The balance between tradition and change is a question of degree. A certain amount of social lag is, as I have said, desirable in the interest of continuity and stability. But our institutions must maintain continuity with the future as well as with the past. Otherwise they will be left tenantless and dark by a generation whose allegiance they can no longer command. And their stability must be the equilibrium of steadied action, not mere inertness. Otherwise they become but so much lumber cluttering the current scene. But a certain degree of lag between institutional change and social change is, I repeat, necessary if civilization is to be kept a going concern.

If, however, we permit the policies and procedures of our institutions, under the lordship of inflexible tradition, to lag too far behind the changes that are taking place in the society they were designed to serve, the glaring maladjustments that result produce a social instability that may lead an otherwise patient people blindly to break continuity with the sound as well as the unsound values of the past.

This, I fear, is the pass to which we have permitted American affairs to come. It is impossible to read the two major volumes of the report of former President Hoover's Research Committee on Recent Social Trends, together with the subsidiary volumes that elaborate its varied aspects, without realizing that our civilization has become, both in its nature and in its needs, a civilization radically different from that which faced our fathers when they determined the major patterns and designed the major institutions of our political, social, and economic life. Under the impact of physical science and industrial technology, the problems that this changed and changing civilization puts to government, to business, to industry, to finance, to the church, to the school, and to the family, as these problems are surveyed in these volumes, are drastically different from the problems that faced us even a generation ago. And the report of this Hoover committee dramatizes as no

document before or since has dramatized, the fatal lag between our old policies and our new problems.

Most of the major patterns and most of the major institutions of our political, social, and economic life were designed in terms of a civilization in which the scale of enterprise was small, the relationships of life simple, and the tempo of affairs slow. The institutions must now function in a civilization in which the scale of enterprise is vast, the relationships of life complex, and the tempo of affairs swift.

The problem of this generation is to see to it that the sort of sweeping changes reflected in this Hoover report, and a rational adjustment of our institutional policies thereto, shall proceed as a guided reconstruction without revolt. And nothing save a flexible intelligence, mediating wisely between the forces of tradition and the forces of change, can insure this result.

"The future of mankind will be bravely imperiled," said John Stuart Mill, "if great questions are left to be fought out between ignorant change and ignorant opposition to change."

"Great economic and social forces flow with tidal sweep over communities only half conscious of that which is befalling them," said Viscount Morley. "Wise statesmen are those who foresee what time is thus bringing, and try to shape institutions and to mold men's thoughts and purpose in accordance with the change that is silently surrounding them."

It is this emancipation from inflexible tradition and this exercise of flexible intelligence, expressed and exemplified by the John Stuart Mills and the John Morleys, that constitute the most crying need of this distraught time. It is this sort of judgment and action that the schools must prepare men to bring to the readjustments that have become imperative as a result of the silent but sweeping revolution that science and technology are working in the political, social, and economic arrangements of American life.

The question is not what we should think about some hypothetical revolt that the bogey-makers picture as stealing upon us unawares, like a thief in the night, hidden in the cloak of some professor who has seen and said that western capitalism must effect a sounder distribution of buying power if it expects to survive, or lurking in the surplice of some clergyman who has come to suspect that maybe war is not the whole will of God.

The question is what this generation purposes to do about the actual revolution thru which the United States is now passing, the revolution which the Hoover Committee on Social Trends so ably documented.

A thousand pressures—social, professional, and economic—will be put upon oncoming youth to spend its energies fighting the windmills of imaginary threats of revolt instead of bringing its intelligence carefully but courageously to bear upon that guided reconstruction of American life which is the only alternative to the increasing insecurity and ultimate collapse of our social and economic orders. It is the business of education to help men to resist these pressures.

There are frightened reactionaries who are sure that we are drifting into Communism. There are frightened radicals who are sure that we are drift-

ing into Fascism. We shall be well advised to take these fears with a grain of salt. Nations never drift either into Fascism or into Communism. Nations go Fascist or Communist only when the soil is thoroly prepared for the seed and when there is behind the Fascist or Communist push a capable, clear-headed, and closely knit group able to get its hands on the levers of military and economic power. There is nothing in the American picture to indicate that we have reached or shall soon reach such a point.

We may, I think, dismiss the chance of a Fascist coup. And a Communist overturn is, in my judgment, even less likely. Even the more moderate movement of American Socialism has not made dramatic headway during the last decade. In 1920, Eugene Debs polled more than 200,000 votes in New York State and more than 900,000 votes in the country as a whole. In 1932, in a time of incredible economic hardship when the wine of discontent was everywhere in ferment, Norman Thomas polled only about 175,000 votes in New York State and some 800,000 votes in the country as a whole. We are not an easily inflammable people. And, for this reason, I refuse to be stampeded by the alarmists. I believe that free capitalism and political liberty, corrected in the light of experience and adjusted to manifest economic facts, will be in the forefront after all of us now living have long been dead. But candor compels me to say that this prophecy can only be made contingent upon our willingness to face fresh facts with fresh minds and to rethink and recast our basic policies respecting wages, hours, prices, profits, and control, as well as the processes of democratic self-government, in the light of the new circumstances of this new age of science and technology.

There is no area of our common life—whether it be politics, economics, or religion—in which the current situation does not call for flexible intelligence either to set new objectives for our institutions or to evolve new weapons with which to battle more effectively for old objectives that are still valid but in danger of being lost.

Certainly flexible intelligence is needed in the field of politics. Political action has lately assumed a new importance for the American future. Donn Byrne, colorful weaver of colorful tales of his adored Ulster, once wrote, "I have never yet seen a government that brought heavier apples to the trees or heavier salmon in the rivers or a more purple heather and for this reason politics means nothing to me." It was doubtless temperament that led this Celtic prose-poet to assume this cavalier attitude towards politics. But there are social analysts who share this point of view on more objective grounds. And it must be admitted that, on the deeper levels of our socio-economic development, signs have not been wanting that we may be passing out of the age of politics. The tone and temper, if not indeed the very structure, of our society are increasingly determined by non-political forces. Forces of physical science! Forces of industrial technology! Forces of cultural revaluation! These, rather than the decisions of politicians, are the forces that, for the last half century have been making, unmaking, and remaking civilizations.

And yet, at the moment, American destiny is, I am convinced, strangely dependent upon the quality of political thought and action we can contrive

to bring to the direction of our industrial and international affairs in the months immediately ahead. It is, I suspect, a flexibly intelligent political leadership, and it alone, that can break the impasse to which the forces of science and technology, under the aegis of obsolete political and economic policies, have brought the American social order. We cannot expect more than transient and insecure phases of recovery until we have rethought and recast our policies respecting wages, hours, prices, profits, and the control of economic processes generally in terms of the new circumstances brought about by science and technology, and until we have achieved a rationalized program of world relations. I am being driven reluctantly to the conclusion that, as American life is now organized, we may not find in the ranks of business, industry, and finance a leadership that can promptly enough effect the basic readjustments of economic policy that events are forcing upon us as the price of our recovery and stabilization, and that, for the time being at least, the initiative for these readjustments must come from political leadership.

This throws a heavy responsibility alike upon political leadership and upon political followership. It was a call at once for firm adherence to the political and economic principles that time has tested and found valid and careful but courageous experimentation in the elaboration of new policies. Officialdom is normally conservative. It likes to play safe. It sticks close to the routinier and, at best, but flirts with the innovator, the pioneer, and the prophet. But an officialdom that does not now play a little more freely away from the bags at the bases will be broken. Dean Inge of St. Paul's Cathedral in London has said that "mankind has honored its destroyers and persecuted its benefactors, building palaces for living brigands, and tombs for long-dead prophets." Political leadership needs now to give a trial to the living prophets and to bring to trial the living brigands. And political followership needs now, regardless of party, to give ungrudging support to any political leadership that is willing so to do.

Certainly flexible intelligence is needed in the field of economics. The fate of private initiative is definitely at stake in the whirl of affairs at Washington today. Rugged individualism is on the run. This throws an unprecedented challenge to the sincere friends of private initiative. I count myself among the friends of private initiative. I am not at all enamored of the prospect of having my own and the nation's life ordered about by bureaucrats. In the long run I doubt the wisdom of having political persons dictate in detail the plans and procedures of American industry. But I am, I hope, a realist. And I set it down as a deep conviction that a sustained study of the passing show has forced upon me that if the freedom of private initiative dies on this continent its friends will be responsible for its death because they failed to bring a flexible intelligence to its modernization.

There is, as I have said, no dominant body of Fascist or Communist thought in the United States. Franklin D. Roosevelt does not want to be dictator. But neither an intelligent President nor an impatient people will stand idly by and see a civilization sink just in order to preserve the dogma

of private initiative. It lies, I think, with the leadership of American business, industry, and finance to say just how far infringements on private initiative shall permanently go.

If the leadership of American industry will pool its varied genius in a nationally integrated effort to work out and to put into effect wage, hour, and price policies that will spread the normal national income widely enough to provide the toiling millions with money and leisure enough to make them a dependable market for the maximum output of our machine economy, if it will reconsider with utter realism the problem of industrial control in the light of the increasing tendencies towards ownership without control and control without ownership, if it will frankly put the social function of industrialism above the special interests of industrialists, if it will make the increase, the enrichment, and the stabilization of life for the millions its first business, and expect private profit to come, as it should come, only as a by-product of its statesmanlike administration of the social function of industrialism, neither Mr. Roosevelt nor Congress will spend much time trying to fasten any dictatorship on American industry—and, incidentally, industrialists will find the size and security of their total profits increased.

If bankers will produce a thoroly dependable banking system that serves instead of sinks the enterprises of the nation, no one will lie awake nights to devise halters and hobbles for the banking system.

Nearly everybody in America prefers private initiative—if it will only deliver the goods. The economic disaster that has befallen us is not, in my judgment, inherent in the nature of private initiative, but is the result of its gross mismanagement. Its preservation will depend, I think, wholly upon its practitioners' bringing flexible intelligence to its operation in this new age of science and technology.

Certainly flexible intelligence is needed in the field of religion if we are to preserve certain priceless values that are gravely endangered in this phase of social disillusionment. Many are rightly concerned over the widespread secession from belief in God, much of it unconfessed, that has been in evidence during the last quarter century. I know the barbarisms and indignities that fanatics have perpetrated in the name of God. I know the innumerable caricatures that short-sighted men have drawn of His countenance, reading their own lusts and limitations into His purposes. But I also know the myriad army of saints and seers whose lives, illuminated by the light of His countenance, have been given to fertilize the soil from which the faith and freedom of the race have flowered. And I am convinced that a civilization that exiles God from its heart dries up one of the well-springs of its power.

I agree with Edna St. Vincent Millay, when she writes:

Not Truth, but Faith, it is
That keeps the world alive. If all at once
Faith were to slacken—that unconscious Faith
Which must, I know, yet be the corner stone
Of all believing—birds now flying fearless
Across would drop in terror to the earth;

Fishes would drown; and the all-governing reins
Would tangle in the frantic hands of God
And the worlds gallop headlong to destruction.

How shall the forces of religion make God again believable to men who have lost all faith in any lordship of life? How shall we save men from cynicism? How shall we help disillusioned men to recapture a courageous confidence that life is not a blind dance of atoms, but a meaningful adventure worthy of deathless objectives?

I shall not presume to make any final answer to these questions that have harassed mankind since the infancy of the race. But of one thing I feel sure: few, if any, men are today drawn to belief or driven into disbelief in God by the traditional dialects of the theists and atheists. Men's belief in God is buttressed or broken less by the arguments they hear than by the way in which the world in which they have to live buttresses or breaks their lives. We live our way into our thinking far more than we think our way into our living.

A man whose life has been broken by the brutality of his fellows is less likely to believe in a beneficent God. "Friends should be kind to a despairing man," said Job, "or he will give up faith in the Almighty." And, in Gustave Frensen's illuminating parable, the old farmer says, "I sowed my enemy's field with corn in order that God might continue to exist." And so, from an ancient scripture and a modern tale, come the corroborating assertions that men's belief or disbelief in God may be but a reflection of what society has done to their lives. If we compel a man to live his life in a society bereft of love and its sterner counterpart, justice, we must not be surprised if he has difficulty in believing in a God of love and justice.

We cannot expect a God of love to be convincing in a loveless world. And to ask men victimized by injustice to believe in a God of justice is, to say the least, optimistic.

Men of flexible intelligence will not attempt to combat atheism or to cultivate a belief in God by sheer dialectics. They will realize that the fortune of religion depends less upon the explanations of professors and the exhortations of parsons than upon the kind of world they and their fellows build.

And now my argument draws to a close. I have exalted the virtue of flexible intelligence as the one hope of a stable and significant national future. It remains only for me to say that, in my judgment, the stimulation and discipline of this flexible intelligence is the greatest contribution the schools can make to this disordered and distraught time. Need I say that schools cannot stimulate and discipline this flexible intelligence unless they are themselves free to bring a flexible intelligence to bear upon the problems with which they deal? Yes, I think it must be said, for never before have there been so many pressures upon the schools, the colleges, and the universities to mold them to a pattern, to soft-pedal their researches into living realities, to tell them what they may and may not say.

There are three major systems of political control now functioning in the Western world—Fascism, Communism, and Democracy. Fascism and Com-

munism have decided what they will do with their schools. They have decided that the laboratory must take orders from the legislature. There are no dissenting professors in Italy. Dissenters have either suffered exile or bought their posts at the price of silence. There are no dissenting professors in Moscow. They are nursing their wounds in Paris or picking up a livelihood as best they can elsewhere in the Western world. And now Hitler has put the sign of the Swastika upon German scholarship which, until now, has been the chief glory of that great people. As Charles E. Merriam has suggested, it remains only for the democracies of the West to say that they will not tolerate differences of opinion to make it unanimous, and then we can blow out the light and fight it out in the dark, for, when the voice of reason is silenced, the rattle of machine guns begins.

THE DUTY OF THE STATE

PAUL MCNUTT, GOVERNOR OF INDIANA, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

It is all very fine to say that men are free and equal and have a like right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. But if vast numbers of the children of the people are left without real opportunity to make the most of themselves, such a saying is a mockery.

Real democracy means that society at its best comes to the children of all the people and sets lessons for them, makes paths for them to all the occupations which history has proved good.

The most precious thing in the state is a child, whether it be your child or mine or the child of the hovel in the city or of the hut in the backwoods of the hills. The birthright of that child is equality of opportunity. It is the duty of the state to protect that birthright, which is the basis of all social progress.

Democracy does not come merely with the granting of suffrage. Democracy comes when every man has a right to enjoy, in accordance with his capacity, the opportunities which science and nature offer to the world.

There are certain obligations which the state cannot deny even in periods of greatest stress: the care of its wards and the education of its children. In the one, the obligation runs to the unfortunates themselves. In the other, the obligation runs to society as a whole. The hope for future prosperity and leadership lies in trained men and women. Children are born and grow up in periods of depression, as well as in periods of prosperity. It is impossible to arrest their development. They have but one chance, which cannot be postponed. Roads and buildings may wait, but not the children.

Adequate support of public education is one of the few paramount duties of an enlightened government. Whose is the loss if you fail in the complete performance of that duty?

A man will feed his own, tho he himself goes hungry. And he will save one corner of the earth which he may claim: his house, his church, his

school! The first is his. The other two he has a part in, according to the degree in which he puts his heart and effort into them. By his hearthstone he may live, safe and sheltered, but in these wider dwellings he finds the finer security of fellowship in communion with the invisible powers that inspire service. Loyalty weaves of spirit a stronger cord than common sense can furnish fiber for. Can it fail to bind you to our system of public education?

If there are moments when you say, "Our system of education is not all that I would have it," think of this: Whose are the hands that have made, or forborne to make its traditions? If you have failed to lend it strength, now is the time to repair that error.

Education moves forward to perform its service to society. Are you with it? If you are, to the limit of your power, you cannot be outdistanced by those of greater fortune or capacity. You have your place in the procession. If you choose to stand aside, whose loss is greater, education's that you have forsaken it? Or yours, that it can no longer claim you?

We hear much talk of economy in government. It is imperative that the cost of government be reduced and the burden equitably distributed. However, it is possible to have rigorous frugality without false economy. False economy threatens some of our fundamental institutions. What we need is wisdom in governmental expenditures. If expenditures are wisely made, they will be economically sound. That is the important thing. Public education is a necessity in a republic such as ours. It is one of our ideals of government. Without it we turn our backs on the painfully accumulated wisdom of the ages and start back on the road to barbarism. The continuance of our government depends upon the welfare and intelligence of the people.

Have we come to the place in life where luxuries for private consumption are of greater social importance than governmental expenditures for necessities? Are we willing to pull out the foundation stone of economic progress because we are afraid that we cannot weather the present economic storm?

I grant that this is a critical period. There is in some quarters fear of worse. It is said that the whole structure of our society is threatened by the communism of Russia. Not alone by its propaganda, but also by its alleged power to undersell and thus to bankrupt the entire world. It is said that dull-witted, vain, and insolent, we slap roundly on the rump the four horses of the Apocalypse, and bid them prepare anew to trample the human herd. It is said that in spite of our science and invention, or because of them, we are approaching a period such as that which followed the decline of the Roman Empire. Ferrero, historian of Rome, says that. Spengler, in a book counted one of the weightiest of the century, says that we are approaching our swift coming, unavoidable doom. Even such a man as Henry Adams, descendant of presidents, student of affairs, both economic and political, says that he sees upon the scroll of destiny for the United States of America, four frightful choices: *first*, the pessimism of Europe's dying civilization; *second*, the tyranny of capital or of labor; *third*, a return to mysticism or to clerical dominion; or, *fourth*, a ceaseless reiteration of the old processes under new

guises at a monotonous level. Those are four frightful choices and they do not belong upon our scroll of destiny.

Does Mr. Adams mean that he has lost faith in our people? Does he mean that he has lost faith in the ability of the masses, as contrasted with the heroes and the miracle men and their classes to work out by reasonably adequate methods the issues which are raised in the flow of time? Certainly he does not mean that. Every page of our history refutes such a statement.

Does he mean that he has lost faith in the genius of the American people, a genius which has produced more by way of scientific achievement during the last decade and a half than has been produced in any half century of the world's history? Certainly that genius is still with us. Certainly it can produce for us those things which are absolutely essential—health, security, some ability and some desire to make a worthwhile contribution to the sum of things as they are.

I, for one, disbelieve the most of these frightening prophecies and defy the rest. Who are these prophets of evil and where have they been? To use the words of Carlyle, "They have been nowhere but where we also have been, and have seen it most a few handbreadths deeper than we now see into the ocean which is without bottom and without shore." Rather than choose the words of Ferrero or Spengler or Henry Adams, or any of the great host of major and minor Jeremiahs, I would choose the words of two men who faced crises in their day.

The first of these was Julius Caesar, who said, "Cowards die many times before their deaths; the valiant never taste death but once." The second was the man who stood at Valley Forge midst privation and suffering and kept his faith, kept his faith in his men, kept his faith in his nation which was to be, kept his faith in his God. Washington said then (and his words are particularly applicable now), "The game is yet in our own hands. To play it well is all we have to do. Nothing but honesty, harmony, industry, and frugality are necessary to make us a great and a happy people." The game is *yet* in our own hands. To play it well is all *we* have to do. Nothing but honesty, harmony, industry, and frugality are necessary to *keep* us a great and a happy people.

Three courses of action are open to our people. First, to surrender in the face of our manifestly serious problems. Second, to attempt to preserve those institutions which have grown up thru the years. The first course is unthinkable, the second, un-American. No nation stands in one spot; it either moves forward or it moves backward. Happily the faces of the American people have been turned forward.

A third course is the only one open to us if we are to be worthy of the fine heritage which is ours, if we are to save our souls from damnation. That course is the one which Foch took during the darkest hour of the World War, when everything had gone against him, everything. He sent this message, "My left is giving way, my right is falling back. Therefore, I am ordering a charge, a decisive attack for the center." We can order a charge and can move forward with courage, with determination, with intelligence,

solve our problems and bring about a better social and economic era in this nation. However, it will not be possible for us to make this third choice if we deny our children access to the door of progress, which is education.

Some states have chosen the third course. Indiana is one. The constitution of Indiana sets out what the General Assembly shall provide by law for a general and uniform system for common schools wherein tuition shall be free and equally open to all. It also provides that a tax may be assessed by the General Assembly for common school support. The first law, providing for a local tuition tax, was declared unconstitutional. Later, this decision was reversed with the result that local school tax rates increased and the state school tax rate decreased. The reduction in the state school tax rate and the unequal distribution of wealth gradually brought about conditions which made educational opportunity far from equal for all the children of the state. One township would have a term of 100 days while an adjoining township, where there was a railroad would have 180 days, both having the same local tuition tax rate.

This inequality persisted until 1905, when the first school relief law became operative and the state provided enough money in addition to the local levy to have a six months' term.

The General Assembly adopted a salary bill in 1920 making the minimum salary for teachers \$800. Consolidations and increased attendance raised school expenditures to such an extent that the General Assembly in 1921 increased the state school tax rate from 5.2 cents to 7 cents and set aside 30 percent of the 7-cent levy as a school relief or equalization fund. This relief covered all school expenditures except capital outlay. In 1929 it became necessary to increase the school relief fund from 30 percent to 45 percent of the 7-cent state common school levy, in addition to the receipts from the chain store tax. The minimum local tax rate to secure a school relief was fixed at \$1.20.

In 1932 the General Assembly passed the so-called \$1.50 law, fixing the maximum levy for all taxing units at \$1.50 on the \$100. Where county tax adjustment boards declared no emergency under this law, many school corporations faced the possibility of reducing the term to three months. Some were not eligible for state aid and others had barely enough to meet bond requirements. To meet the obvious need and to save public education, the 1933 General Assembly enacted the school support law authorizing the state to pay \$600 per teacher to the employing school unit, on the basis of an average daily attendance of thirty-five pupils, or major fraction thereof, for the elementary teacher, and twenty-five pupils, or major fraction thereof, for the high-school teacher. One-room schools and all others unable to meet their requirements become emergency cases to be handled by the state board of education.

The school relief law provides a state tax of 7 cents and authorizes the state board of education to fix the minimum local school tax rate and to make such other regulations as are necessary in order that the school units of low assessed valuation may avail themselves of school relief. This law enables

all school units to have a minimum term of eight months and to have a property tax of \$1.50 or less. The minimum wage law fixes the elementary teacher's salary at a minimum wage of \$1000 per school year. None of these laws prevents a school unit from having a longer term or paying a greater wage than that set out in the law if it so elects. This school program will be financed by a gross income tax and intangibles tax and the interests from the state common school fund.

This is Indiana's answer to the question how to save the schools during a period of economic stress. The Indiana program is important because it demonstrates conclusively that there is an answer to the school problem.

The entire obligation in this hour of need does not rest upon the state. It also rests upon those who are actively engaged in educational work. It is necessary for them to make a critical and searching examination of all of their agencies, to see which, if any, have outlived their usefulness. This is the time for perfect candor—no bragging, no pretense that things are better than they are, no tolerance of what should not be tolerated. All must work together to preserve and improve our system of public education in order that the children of all of the people may claim their birthright of equality of opportunity. "So teach us to number our days that we may apply our hearts unto wisdom."

TEACHERS ON GUARD

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
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I heard David Starr Jordan say that for twenty-five years after every great war the sons were shorter in stature than their fathers. It was his theory that in every great war the best men were killed and that the result was an inferior physical generation. He did not speak in particular about the effects of such a war upon the emotional and moral development of the children. It is a comparatively easy thing for even a casual observer to see the great material havocs that are wrought by every war. The destruction of cities, the blowing up of fortifications, the sinking of ships, the destruction of commerce, the killing of thousands of men, and the crippling of thousands of others—all these are matters which the most superficial observer of any war can hardly avoid seeing. It may be possible for scientific observers to discover that war stunts the physical bodies of the succeeding generation. But it requires a deeper discernment to see the much deeper and more lasting injuries that every great war works upon the emotional and moral character of the children born and reared under the human clouds which gather with every war and linger after the actual conflict has ceased. The emotional strain upon the children during any war is something that cannot easily be measured. The overstimulation by the martial music and the exciting parades plow deep into the tender soil of the children's imagination and leave ghastly furrows. The terrifying alarms which reach their impressionable ears of the death of dear ones produce emotional shocks which no psychiatrist can

accurately diagnose. But the effect of a great war upon children goes even further. Children in their mothers' wombs suffer terrible physical and mental deformities. Moreover, they suck from their mothers' breasts some of the hatred and bitterness engendered by the war.

The recent crime wave which has swept over all the European countries involved in the World War has brought before us some of the astounding facts that murder, banditry, and suicide have had an unprecedented increase in these years succeeding that war; that such other crimes as, robbery, arson, and rape have increased to unprecedented proportions. But altogether the most alarming phase of this report is that practically all these crimes are committed by young men who were born during or since the World War. Who can doubt that the deep seated influences of that struggle upon these immature minds have helped to produce these results? The highly colored stories and novels of the war and the moving pictures have helped to intensify the effect. They have seen that under the rules of war property could be destroyed, lives could be taken, all sorts of things done which are considered crimes in normal times.

Yes, it is easy for bankers and financiers, for great industrial leaders, to estimate what the effects of an impending war will be on industry and trade, on finance and economic conditions. It is easy for the average person to forecast the result of the number of men who will be killed and of their widows and of their orphans. It is fairly easy for anyone to see the number of crippled men who will walk the streets after such a war. But it requires a special discernment to see in advance the effect that every war will have upon the children living during the war or who are born immediately subsequent to it. It would be well, therefore, when any great war is contemplated for us to consider the children first. It matters somewhat whether the sons will be as tall as their fathers in the succeeding generation, but it matters a very great deal more whether these children will have their emotional life and moral ideals seriously disturbed and distorted by such a human catastrophe.

Somewhat the same attitude of mind is taken by the public in every great financial crisis. It is so easy for us to concentrate our attention upon the banks which have closed their doors, upon the great industrial plants which are shut down, upon the long marching armies of the unemployed, and the number of men who have fled the country or have taken the short way out of their financial reverses thru suicide. I say it is comparatively easy for the busy public to see these gross material results of a great nationwide and worldwide depression. But it requires a higher degree of understanding and of penetration to see the consequences of such a panic upon the childhood and youth of the nation or the world. No one will overlook the fact that in times of great prosperity, injury may come to the growing boy and girl by over-indulgence and that the very presence of wealth and what it can buy may soften the intellectual and moral fibre of the youth. But there is something about the effects of extreme poverty and privation which brings very vividly to every thoughtful mind the mental and moral effects upon the children. It is so easy for us in the presence of such a financial and eco-

conomic disorder to spend a great deal of our time and energies in talking about the tariffs and about taxation and remedial legislation of various sorts—all of which may or may not bring about any permanent relief. But amidst the confusion and disturbance it requires the sober judgment and the discerning eye to see that the paramount matter of concern should be a plan that will save the children from suffering damaging deprivations and irreparable losses. The older generation will no doubt suffer great inconveniences in the lowering of the standards of living and in their disappointed ambitions, but the effects upon the children will be more fundamental and further reaching than any of the temporary inconveniences which the adult population may suffer.

Everyone will recall that when the great steamship Titanic had struck the iceberg and it became apparent that the ship would be lost, and preparations were being made to lower the life boats and to save as many as could be cared for by this means, that the brave men upon that ship adopted the slogan "Women and children first." It would be fortunate for the oncoming generations, if during this appalling financial crisis when fortunes are being destroyed over night, when great industrial concerns that it has taken a hundred years to build up are shutting down, when banks that have had behind them the keenest financial brains and the soundest integrity are closing their doors—I say that during the time when these things are happening it would be well for us in considering the tremendous retrenchments and reorganizations which must be made in order to adjust ourselves, that someone should take the position that in all of our remedial efforts our consideration should be of the children first. We can close down a great industrial plant and when the depression is over it may be opened again without any serious impairment of the plant or to the product which it manufactures. Last June I drove past the great furniture manufacturing establishment at Grand Rapids, Michigan. It covered a large tract of land. I understood that when in operation it employed thousands of men and women. On the day I passed it every door and window was closed. Here and there a guard could be seen moving back and forth outside of the building. One could spend a good deal of time in regretting the closing of such an establishment with the consequent additions that it made to the great army of unemployed. But as soon as the panic lifts, the bearings of the machines will be oiled, coal will be put into the bunkers, and the machinery will start and the men and women will return to work.

But it is very different if we turn our attention to the situation of our schools which it has taken hundreds of years to build. So far as the physical plant alone is concerned, there would be some ground of comparison between it and the manufacturing establishment, but in all other respects there is a fundamental difference. To close down our schools would be to produce certain permanent dislocations and certain permanent losses which no subsequent opening of the schools could repair. Every person officially connected with the public-school system of this country knows that in this financial disturbance in which fortunes have been lost, in which the incomes of the

people in every walk and vocation of life have been diminished, that such an institution as the public school, maintained by public expense, must curtail its program and adjust itself to these changing conditions. It would be stupid and foolhardy on our part not to see such a situation, and it would be unpatriotic in us not to make every effort possible to adjust ourselves to these changing conditions. But we would be untrue to our great calling, untrue to the interests of the oncoming generation, if we do not stand forth boldly and declare that in the consideration of these readjustments and reorganizations the interests of the children must be considered first.

I believe, in this fight to protect the rights of the children as represented in the schools of this country, that the 800,000 teachers constitute the first line of defense and as long as they are on guard I have confidence in the belief that the interests of the 26,000,000 American school children will be safe.

Nor will they be diverted from this great duty and obligation by charges that they are seeking to protect their own salaries. Recently I heard a certain member of a legislature, who seemed to have been born in the objective case and active voice, holding forth that the effort to save the teachers' pension fund was evidence that these teachers were purely selfish, that their interest was not in the children, that they were interested only in adding to their own personal salaries. Of course, it could be difficult to advance any argument which would penetrate to the intelligence of such a person. If he had seen Annie Louise Keller as she divined the oncoming storm with its dangers, and as she called her little flock into the country school building in order to shield them from the storm; could he have seen her as she engaged them in a game trying to calm their fears, and as the shock of the storm broke could he have seen her having the children get under their desks to protect them from falling bricks and timbers, and especially if he could have seen her as, after thus securing the children, she went to the door to brace it against the force of the wind, and could he have seen her after the storm had destroyed the building and had covered her with the great brick arch, crushing out her life, but with every one of the nineteen children saved from any harm whatever—even if he had seen all this, probably he would still have been saying that teachers never do anything for the children except when animated by selfish motives.

Did Annie Louise Keller take counsel of her fears? Was she protecting the children simply in order to earn her salary? While her heroic sacrifice has been published in papers all over the civilized world, and a monument has been erected to her memory, there are hundreds and thousands of other teachers that are showing the same courageous and determined judgment in their efforts to save the schools and the children from the wrath of this great financial storm, and whose motives are just as free from selfishness as were those of Annie Louise Keller.

Alfred Bayliss, my predecessor in office, was a member of a Michigan regiment in the Civil War. He told me that his regiment had attained the reputation of being a dependable regiment on guard. When the fighting had been hard and the soldiers of his division needed a good night's sleep,

the word would go up and down, "Sleep well tonight, boys, the Eleventh Michigan is on guard."

When people come to me disturbed and anxious about the schools, wondering whether the rich content that has been put into our courses of study and the greatly enriched school opportunity which has been afforded to the children is going to be cut ruthlessly back by the hand of this depression, I would like to be able to say to them, "Fear not, the 800,000 teachers of America are on guard."

HOW THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION HELPS THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

FLORENCE HALE, FIRST VICEPRESIDENT OF THE N. E. A.; AND EDITOR,
The Grade Teacher, NEW YORK, N. Y.

In an address of this length, it is of course not possible to go very much into detail about the varied types of service which the N. E. A. renders to its members. To try to do so, anyway, would be much like carrying coals to Newcastle because all of you present here today are loyal N. E. A. members or you would not be here. Most of you, then, already know about the particular types of service available thru the N. E. A. It is true, however, that there are thousands of teachers who are not members of the N. E. A. and who have very little idea of the help which the organization stands ready to give them. It would be a fine thing if every member present at this convention would make it a personal matter to help spread this information among such teachers at a time when our profession needs organized action more than it has ever done in the past. We might give the general idea of such help in the words with which the N. E. A. ends one of its leaflets descriptive of the organization: "Lawyers have the American Bar Association; physicians have the American Medical Association; teachers have the National Education Association."

A very comprehensive description and analysis of all of the different types of service can be obtained by writing to either the publicity or research departments of the N. E. A. In condensed form, these data also appear in the reports which you have in your hands. You are all familiar with the splendid *Journal of the National Education Association* which, in itself, is worth the entire price of membership. I take it for granted that you all know that we have what is recognized as the finest educational research bureau in the United States. From our research people you may get immediately all of the facts, statistics, and aid which you may need suddenly in putting the cause of the teachers before your legislatures, your schoolboards, or meetings of taxpayers.

Especially because of the nature of the times, I want to select only two of the many ways in which the N. E. A. does help the individual teacher. I think perhaps the greatest service rendered is the encouragement and opportunity which the N. E. A. is giving the individual teacher to be a person in his own right. The fact that at this very meeting our two candidates for the presidency of the N. E. A. represent in a very large way the individual

teacher, is significant of the progress which our Association has made in improving the condition of teachers and their chance for a "place in the sun." One of our candidates is a representative of the classroom teacher group, while the other is an elementary-school principal. The younger persons present probably do not appreciate the significance of this occasion as we do who have been connected for so many years with the Association. Some of you, like myself, remember that it has not been so very long since the ready acceptance of a classroom teacher, for example, as a candidate for the presidency of the N. E. A. It was not so many years ago that teachers were supposed to keep silent in a convention of this sort and to accept thankfully, at least in public, the point of view and the projects handed down to them from college professors and superintendents of schools who directed almost entirely the affairs of the Association. In fact, about the greatest criticism of our Association from some of the people, even today, is that the Association is doing too much for the individual teacher in giving him this chance for recognition. It is hard for such critics, who were used to the old order of things, to realize that in school affairs, like public affairs, we are fortunately going thru the period known as a New Deal. There are no kings any more. Aristocrats are not so very popular. This is distinctly the day of the common people in all affairs of life, and it is fortunate for the N. E. A. that we have been getting ready for such a day so that we are right in the line of modern progress.

I can well remember, and so can some of you, when the first proposal to lift a classroom teacher to the position of president of the N. E. A. was met with nothing less than horror on the part of some of the older members of the Association. They predicted dire disaster for the organization. Strangely enough, some of the most violent fears were expressed by members of great institutions who had cried the loudest for democracy in their classrooms.

Well, the classroom teacher was elected and the organization, like the Washington Monument, still stands, and no very great disasters were entered upon the records of the Association as a result. I do not know just what these good critics thought would happen. Perhaps they thought the classroom teacher would be too timid to preside over the meetings of the organization, but any teacher can tell you that about the best preparation for doing that is the experience of having been able to discipline year after year rooms of from thirty to fifty children, not to speak of the schoolboard and the parents, who need discipline quite as much sometimes. I found from my own experience that presiding over a body of this sort required just about the same ideas of discipline as a successful teacher requires. Perhaps the critics also felt that the classroom teacher would be gullible and would be likely to embarrass the Association by running after all sorts of strange fancies and allowing all sorts of strange people to appear on the programs. Yes, that might be, but even great institutions sometimes are a little gullible. Anyone who is familiar with the history of technocracy during the last year or two knows that. Certainly, one of our great institutions will not have much criticism of the classroom teacher if he should make a mistake in this direction since they have been thru the same experience and emerged with none

too much credit from it. However, thus far, I think it can be said safely that the individual teachers, whose representatives have risen to high positions in our organization, have neither proved timid nor very gullible. I believe that this has been one of the greatest services that our organization has rendered to the cause of the classroom teachers all over the country and you who are members should not let this fact pass unnoticed when you are trying to enlist the membership of your fellow teachers.

It is absolutely certain that the changed attitude of the N. E. A. toward the type of teacher which we have been discussing has had a very marked influence upon his general welfare in school systems, and this is entirely proper. I might refer again to some of the arguments which those of the old school advance along these lines. They have said rather plainly that if the classroom teacher were fitted to become an official of any sort in any great organization, he would not have remained a classroom teacher but would have become a supervisor, a principal, or superintendent of schools, by virtue of his ability. We know that such a sentiment embodies one of the most pernicious points of view in the teaching profession, i. e., that a teacher must move on to some administrative position if he is to secure either a good salary or recognition. The weakness of the teaching profession is the great turn-over in the classroom teacher body, and the fact that just as soon as a teacher does become unusually strong in the classroom, his friends and he himself expect that he must be taken out of the work for which he is so admirably fitted and be promoted, as it is said, into one of these other positions. One of the greatest advances we have made in our thinking is that no teacher ought to be obliged to leave the classroom and the actual work of teaching children in order to secure professional recognition or a decent salary. After all, the work of the public schools is not the making of speeches or organizing programs so much as it is teaching the children of this nation. What is making most of our trouble today in trying to safeguard our school systems, and to keep our budgets from being cut and important subjects from being dropped from the curriculum? One of the reasons at least is the overwhelming number of voters in many places who have failed to understand the true mission of education and have not the respect for these subjects and for the whole idea that they should have. As time goes on, I believe there will be a more intelligent voting public, due to a more contented, more intelligent, and more ambitious classroom teacher body.

Let us take the point of view of some of the leading educators in some of our colleges who have been so worried over the development of the ordinary classroom teacher. If their arguments are true that no teacher who has initiative or splendid personality or a very high degree of intelligence will remain long as a classroom teacher, then we might say, "Heaven help us all," for there will be very little other help for these precious budgets and school systems which we are now trying to defend. Why? Because statistics show us that a surprising percent of our voting public leave school entirely at the end of the sixth grade, while a still larger percent leave school at the end of the eighth grade. A very much smaller percentage go thru high school and an extremely small percentage ever go to college. Therefore, it is evident that

the character, civic ideas, ideas of the worth of education, and all these things which are to be implanted in the minds of the people who are to be the great voting public are dependent upon the classroom teacher in the grades, where they are now going to school in such great numbers. It may be true that the college professors and the people who are college graduates or the equivalent have a very fine idea of our school systems and what they ought to be, but if in each town or city there is an overwhelmingly large number of the everyday voters who know nothing about these things, who have been carelessly taught by a changing body of teachers, they can by their numbers defeat every one of the objectives of the people who have had the higher education. Therefore, it becomes increasingly important and necessary that every means shall be employed to see that the classroom teacher has initiative, is awake and alert and ambitious, and we all know that such qualities are not developed when one is in a profession that seems like a blind alley.

The University of Chicago is one of the outstanding institutions to recognize this fact. The vigorous young president, Robert Hutchins has, over and over again, this year come to the defense of the classroom teacher and reiterated his belief in him as one of the most important parts of the school system. I speak with no idea of bitter criticism or unkindliness toward those who have clung the hardest to the old idea of aristocracy in the affairs of the N. E. A. because I know that old ideas and long-established customs die hard. But the sooner they wake up to the fact that there is a New Deal and that nothing is being done today as it was in the past, the better it will be for them and for the institutions which they represent. If they have at heart, as I firmly believe, the real interests of education in this country, they will no longer seek to depreciate the value of our professional organization because it is seeking to help the individual teacher, but they will do everything they can themselves to help him, and they can do much. It will not be done, however, by a scornful attitude or by trying to regulate him back to his old machine position. It will not be done by high-sounding phrases in the classroom about democracy and the freedom of the teacher. It will be done by welcoming him to the organization, urging him to be ambitious to fill its highest positions, and then helping him to secure the best information and the best culture that they possibly can open up to him.

Besides this particular sort of help to the teacher himself in improving his condition, in setting the example to the nation of his recognition as an important person and an important factor in the country's life and welfare, the N. E. A. is also helping in creating public opinion by bringing the facts of education forcibly to the mind of the public. Teachers who are not members probably have little idea of how much more disastrous their position would be today had our great professional organization not been hammering away constantly in their behalf, thru radio broadcasts, each one of which, as our letters indicate, reaches an audience of many thousand people, possibly millions. Moreover, the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, of which John K. Norton is chairman, has been working unceasingly in every part of the country to support the teacher's cause. I have time to give you only one quotation from a typical letter, but there have been many others like it. In a letter from Montana one of our members says:

I am very glad to report that the special levy for the maintenance of the common schools carried by a vote of 192 to 64. Where there has usually been no opposition to this levy, still I was very fearful that because of the conditions during the past three years it might possibly be lost. I attribute this overwhelming majority to the fact that we have tried to carry out the policies recommended by the publicity department of the National Education Association and by the broadcasts which are sent out each Sunday afternoon.

Teachers and members of the National Education Association, we have not yet begun to sense the power and opportunity which is in the hands of the teachers of this country if they only know how to use it. As Payson Smith, commissioner of education of Massachusetts, has said so forcibly during the past year, "There are no dangers outside of the teaching profession that are as great as those within its very ranks." And he has gone on to enumerate some of these as indifference, lack of standing together in emergencies, and a certain amount of selfishness—looking for the personal good instead of being willing to sacrifice something for a common cause. It is only thru being a member of a great professional organization, however, that one has a chance really to sense these things and to know how to cooperate in a large way. I might also say that there are no dangers that assail the National Education Association from the outside as great as those which assail it from within, due to much the same reasons that are true of the profession in general. I do not wish to be misunderstood, either, because I do not believe that the groups which seem to be trying to work disaster to the organization and thru it to the teaching profession in general, really themselves quite understand what they are doing. They have not become awake to this New Deal of which I am speaking. They honestly believe that we are going to rack and ruin because affairs are no longer in the hands of a small circle of people of what seems to them superior social intelligence and vigor. I call upon them to give the new type of organization which they represent a trial instead of criticizing, tearing down, or rushing into printed criticism. I ask them for the benefit of the whole organization and for the common good of education at this critical time to try to build up harmony and to give of their great richness of opportunity, their superior educational advantages, and their high-mindedness to increase the equipment of those of us who have come up from the ranks and who, because of the struggle in doing so, may perhaps also have something to contribute to them in our courage, in our understanding of the common people, in our special opportunity to deal directly with the children of this country upon whom all of us, great and small, shall have to depend later on for the preservation of our educational ideals.

In all honesty, do let those who sing the praises too loudly of the old days just look up the history of the organization in those years which have been so often quoted lately, and they will find that for the first sixty years of the life of the organization, the records of those same people show that the Association attempted to do very little but hold conventions and carry out programs, quite contrary to the impression sometimes conveyed by the adherents of the old days who rather indefinitely give us to understand that much greater accomplishments were carried on then for the teachers than now. Today the N. E. A. has these fine programs but considers them actually only a small part of the service it is rendering to the teachers of the country.

EDUCATIONAL TRENDS AND THE GENERAL SOCIAL ORDER

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A group of social scientists prepared, at the request of President Hoover, and published last January an account of the various social trends in American life. They traced the movement of the people of the United States away from the rural areas toward urban centers. They described the rapid increase in mechanical inventions and pointed out the effects of such inventions on modes of living. They showed how governmental activities and agencies have multiplied until a complex, overlapping pattern of civil jurisdictions and taxing bodies has been evolved which is driving the people of this country to seek relief in precipitate reform. They traced a number of other movements and recorded their findings in as comprehensive an account of the social characteristics of the United States as has ever been formulated.

When the details of the several studies are viewed in their relations to one another, it is possible to discover a general fact which is of large significance for the thinking of anyone who tries to understand what is happening in our presentday civilization. This general fact can be stated in some such terms as these. While the current trends in government, in redistribution of the population, in industry, in religion, and in the other aspects of the general social order all move forward at a rapid rate, the several rates of movement exhibited by the individual trends are not the same. The result is that the social order as a whole lacks internal integration. One trend has carried the nation to a very advanced position, while another trend matures less rapidly and operates in fact as an inhibiting influence. Not only so, but the various trends seem at times to be in opposite directions, or at least they are in such divergent directions that national advancement cannot be described in any single formula.

Among the forces which contribute to the progress of society, there is none which in recent decades has been more aggressive and influential than education. The American people, like all the peoples of the world, have been greatly impressed by the advances in knowledge made by the natural sciences and the social sciences. All nations, especially our own, have been benefited by the applications of scientific discoveries. As a result, the communities of the United States have willingly, even eagerly, provided in every possible way for the erection of great institutions to advance knowledge and to make knowledge a common possession of all classes of society.

To be sure, the progress of education has not been achieved without conflicts. The other forces which make for general social betterment often lag behind education. Sometimes forces which are beneficial in many respects are harmful because of their misapplication at certain points. One example of backwardness in the civilization of the United States was brought to light by the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement in the section of its report which deals with the causes of crime. It is shown that

the great cities of this country have areas which, by virtue of their untoward social and physical conditions, breed excesses of juvenile crime. Apparently, American cities, with all their improvements, have not learned how to organize themselves so as to escape the social infections which result from certain forms of congestion and degeneration. Even tho the schools provide, in constantly increasing measure, wholesome conditions of life for young people, cities are guilty of tolerating for a part of the youthful population surroundings that are unfavorable to proper individual development.

Another example of incoordination in the social life of this country is seen in the inability of the social order to give young people suitable opportunities for the use of their energies. Each year, as the Office of Education reports, somewhat more than 300,000, or approximately 55 percent, of the young people graduating from high school leave the educational system. In addition to these 300,000 high-school graduates who do not continue their education, there are each year more than 125,000 graduates of colleges, universities, and higher professional schools who pass into industry, the professions, or unemployment. If to these 425,000 graduates of high schools and institutions of higher education one adds those who find it necessary to drop out of high schools and colleges before completing the curriculum, one realizes the magnitude of the problem which confronts society of turning into useful channels the energies of young people which are released each year and are available for employment but, if not utilized, are sure to be disastrously misdirected.

There is, unfortunately, much evidence which goes to show that society is not taking proper care of its young people. Inadequacy in the treatment of youth is not a mere passing symptom of the financial depression. For more than two decades industry and commerce have not kept pace with the growing ability and desire of young Americans to contribute to the work of the world. One of the most important reasons why the secondary schools of this country are overcrowded is that the schools are the only places where boys and girls of the adolescent age can be occupied. If industrial leaders do not very soon recognize the fact that the unbalanced development of industry has created grave social problems affecting the youth of the land, there will come such incoordination within the social order that all progress will be jeopardized.

I recently saw a copy of an official communication issued by a state chamber of commerce explicitly advocating a reduction of the school system to the status of 1870. It will be recalled that in 1870 secondary schools of the type now common all over the United States were practically nonexistent. The writer of the communication to which I refer must have known something of the history of education, but he can hardly be credited with an intelligent grasp of the trends of civilization. To go back to 1870 in education is as impossible as to stay the human race in its conquest of nature and in its fundamental urge for the perfection of democratic institutions.

What I have been saying shows that, while industry progresses and education progresses, their rates and directions of progress are not the same. Industry has been moving very rapidly in the direction of extreme mechanization of all its processes. The schools move in the direction of cultivation of human intelligence and human appreciations. Shall an integration of these two divergent trends be sought in a surrender of the schools to mechanization? Shall we drift back as a nation to a state in which the great mass of the people are denied the privileges of secondary and higher education? Shall society once more be divided into classes and castes some of which are deprived of the right to a knowledge of sciences and letters? Or shall the effort be made to instil into industry the ideals of the best possible human life?

I, for one, have no doubt as to the answers which will be given to these questions. For a time the social order is halted in its progress by internal stresses and tensions. Education seems to be held back temporarily by the slow readjustments of industry. We see here an example of the difficulty of maintaining a uniform rate of movement in social trends.

A third example of uncoordinated trends is to be seen in the slow progress which the United States has made in organizing government and reforming systems of taxation. Governmental organization is painfully backward. It does not keep pace with the rapid strides which are being made in human culture. Political science has called attention again and again to the fact that this country is burdened with governmental units which are far too numerous to render efficient service to the communities which support them. These numerous and often overlapping and unnecessary subdivisions of government are due in part to the insidious influences which exert their energies in creating positions for office-seekers, and in part to the fact that jurisdictions which were created when communication and transportation were slow and difficult persist and resist combination into units which are reasonable and economical in size for an age such as that in which we live.

A single illustration of badly organized government will serve to indicate the indefensible situation into which we have come. The state of Illinois has twelve thousand school districts with forty-seven thousand members of schoolboards. This number of school districts is an inheritance from an age when a journey of fifteen miles was a day's arduous task. Can the state of Illinois throw off the incubus of this antique system of school-districting? Apparently not without the cultivation of much higher civic intelligence than has been developed up to this time. Even the state officials in charge of public instruction are vague in their pronouncements on this ancient iniquity.

The immediate consequence of the slow progress in modernizing American governmental organization appears in the difficulty which communities encounter in supporting their wasteful and outworn systems of public service. Irrational subdivision of governmental jurisdiction is accompanied by the survival of outworn systems of taxation, which make it clear that in matters of public finance the American people are in a state of backwardness that can be charitably explained only by assuming that they have never put their minds to the problem of setting their government in order. A kindly provi-

dence has lavished on this nation vast unearned resources. Until recently the natural wealth of the land has covered up our folly. We are now learning that current trends in government and taxation are out of harmony with the more progressive trends of social organization.

There is one very striking characteristic of the reactionary forces in human society. They show their lack of competency by their vacillation. Let me point out examples drawn from recent history. In 1917 certain manufacturers of this country who had formed an organization which had as its purpose improvement of the training of laborers, went to Congress with the demand that a large federal appropriation be made for the introduction into high schools of courses in vocational education. It was asserted, as a part of the justification for the demand for federal money, that vocational courses are expensive. One fact which distinguishes vocational courses from courses in history and English is that vocational courses often require machinery. Furthermore, it was pointed out in 1917 that well-qualified teachers of vocational subjects have to be paid higher salaries than are paid to teachers of academic subjects. The United States Chamber of Commerce joined with the organized manufacturers in persuading Congress to pass a law not only supplying a large appropriation but requiring the states to match the federal appropriation if they were to receive aid. The forces of industry and commerce had their way. New subjects, and very expensive subjects, were introduced into the curriculum of American high schools. In 1933 the United States Chamber of Commerce refused to take part in a national conference on the crisis in education which was called because of lack of funds in many of the states with which to carry on schools. The manufacturers sent to the conference official delegates who fought at every step for a reduction in expenditures in schools. These advocates of reduction represented the same people who in 1917 had been insistent on an expansion of the school program.

It is easy to parallel with many others this example of external pressure for expansion of the educational program and later advocacy of retrenchment. The organized bankers of this country have carried on for years a persistent campaign to extend the school curriculum by the teaching of thrift. Their definition of thrift is to save money and deposit it in banks. The physicians and dentists have favored school clinics. The lawyers, who are now getting themselves elected or appointed to schoolboards for the express purpose of enforcing the drastic retrenchments ordered by their clients, the financial and business leaders of communities, have for years carried on in a formal and organized way a campaign to compel the schools to teach children the fundamental law of the land in classes wholly separate from those which teach civics or history. These are not cases in which the views of interested promoters of expansion have been quietly expressed in private or in unsystematic ways. Every case which I have cited is a case of vigorous, organized propaganda for expansion. Each case is one in which expansion was effected. Each case is one in which educators are today being attacked for extravagance by some of the very people who a few years ago were insisting on expansion. I submit that, when any single organized group within Amer-

ican society which formerly insisted on expansion, today allows its official representatives to advocate a return of the schools to the status of 1870, the time has come to call for nothing less than a public consideration of the need for internal social integration.

My diagnosis of the reason why society has not kept up with education is that education has not concerned itself as fully as it should with the exposure of the retarding influences that hold society back. The schools have taught in a few advanced courses, and somewhat timidly, that outworn taxing systems are wrong in principle and inadequate, that they originated in a bygone age and need to be reconstructed in the light of presentday experience. I advocate that the schools begin, with the sessions of next autumn, to prepare lessons on taxation and present these in vigorous form to the citizens of the next generation. I am in favor of such a reconstruction of the curriculum, worked out cooperatively by educators, that the American people will be compelled to talk at the dinner table with their children about taxes and legislators and tax-reduction associations.

I am further in favor of the discussion in schools of the governmental organization of cities and states. If it is said by those who are afraid to have light thrown on our national inadequacies that young children will be harmed by such discussion, my answer is that they are now harmed beyond measure by popular ignorance and lack of initiative in seeking reform.

The teachers of this country have a responsibility for the training of young people and for the protection of the interests of youth. There will be some who will say that the proposed program of civic education is radical. There will be some who will accuse teachers of seeking to serve selfish interests. The answer to these charges is that no other organized group is competent to represent youth.

I have confidence in parents, but they are not organized for the protection of the birthrights of American children. When they are aroused to a recognition of the fact that powerful groups are attempting to reduce education to the status of 1870, they will react with vigor and with ultimate effect, but at present parents are confused and ill-informed. They do not understand the forces which are tending to break down the morale of young people. They have been made to understand the necessity of conserving the material resources of the nation. They have not realized the harm which will follow a neglect of human resources. I am glad to see the nation willing to build dams and plant trees. I am glad to see these laudable enterprises coupled with movements for relief of the material distress of families. I make a plea for equally intelligent attention to the needs of American young people. As the situation stands today, school sessions in all parts of the United States are being reduced by weeks and months. Some communities have closed their schools altogether. Curtailment of opportunity is being tolerated in this, the richest nation on the earth, at a time when the civilizations of Europe are opening new schools and making training at the higher levels available as never before to the common people. In France federal appropriations are being voted to make secondary schools free for the first time in the history

of that country. In France free secondary education is a national political issue of the first magnitude. In the United States, where the free high school originated, selfish, narrow-minded leaders of public policy, who have grossly mismanaged their own affairs, prate about dragging the schools back to the status of 1870. If France were alone in the movement to enlarge educational opportunities, we might well be ashamed to be thinking about retrenchment, but in Germany and England, where community budgets are strained to the point of despair, educational opportunities are being increased in number and scope because it is recognized that education is the force which will save the future. Shall American teachers be silent while crass spoilsmen shut the schools and incompetent leaders blind the people to the fact that the real difficulty is not in expanded opportunities for knowledge but in taxing systems which are iniquitous and in governmental units which are so badly organized that they destroy what intelligence has laboriously created?

I believe that, if teachers will ally themselves with the vigorous policies of the federal administration, a cure for the present retrenchment of education can be found which will be no less immediate and effective than the cure which courage and insight have provided for industry. We have seen a wise executive mobilize the nation and turn its steps into the road that promises to lead to better life. I believe it is possible and proper for the educational forces of this country to join in the movement for immediate national recovery.

There is a direct channel of approach to the President. The federal Office of Education and the Department of the Interior have never been fully utilized by the school people of the United States. The Office of Education has performed a large service. It has compiled reports which surpass in comprehensiveness and value the educational reports of any other nation. It has done its work on appropriations from Congress which have been so small that they attest the ignorance of our national legislators with regard to the needs of the educational system. Congress seems to have no remotest comprehension of what is necessary to provide for the fundamental development of the cultural forces of American society. Let us undertake a campaign of education of the people so that they will understand their educational system. We of the schools have devoted ourselves too exclusively to the routine of teaching and of administering the internal affairs of educational institutions. We have been divided in our associations into administrators of school systems, teachers in the grades, teachers and administrators in high schools, and teachers and administrators in colleges. We have been faithful in performing our several duties but inadequate in influencing national policy. I recommend and urge that we now call upon the Office of Education, which is the most inclusive educational agency in America, to bring together and make effective in national planning the best wisdom of the nation to the end that young people shall not be deprived of their right to a proper share in the democratic opportunities which this nation is able to afford. If there is a sphere in which national planning and prompt,

decisive action are imperative in the interests of national safety, it is the sphere of education.

There was a time when I doubted the wisdom of asking for large federal appropriations for schools. I am now convinced that states and local communities are no longer competent under presentday taxing systems to secure for young people the schooling that they should have. I am in favor of an insistent demand for relief of local school budgets from federal sources. Either the national treasury must help communities, or the federal taxing power must relinquish its hold on the national income.

I may be wrong in the view to which I have been converted. If I am and if others who hold similar views are wrong, we have a right to demand, under present conditions, that some plan be worked out which will be effective in restoring to education the revenues essential to the preservation of American education.

Again, there are many of us who hold, as I have already suggested, that the time has come for a "new deal" in civic training. We believe that the traditional curriculum of the schools has outlived its justification. In the name of the modern state, in the name of a new civilization, in the name of the future, we call for a curriculum that shall prepare young people for life in a progressing world.

Again, we may be wrong in our eagerness for a reconstructed curriculum. If we are, we at least have a right to lay our arguments before some national planning agency which will be as impartial as are the agencies now working for the reconstruction of industry.

Finally, there are many of us who believe that experts in the administration of schools are handicapped and prevented from performing their duties by forces which are either unintelligent or sinister. In this connection I shall not even suggest, for the sake of making my point, that we may be wrong. We have witnessed of late crude and ignorant manipulations of school budgets much too often to permit the harboring of any doubts as to the motives behind these manipulations. We demand that an agency, broad enough in its vision and inclusive enough in the range of its influence, be brought into operation thru intelligent planning to show communities how to avoid the maladjustments which now put legislation and the actions of local schoolboards in the way of expert guidance of schools.

The President of the United States, who has earned the enthusiastic loyalty of all of us by his strong and wise leadership, can do for American youth what he has done for American finance and American industry. Let us appeal to him to act thru the Department of the Interior and thru the Office of Education to provide for the creation and execution of plans which shall not only save but enhance the morale of American young people and shall assure adequate preparation of these young people for life in a new era to the end that the future shall not see a repetition of the mismanagement which has depressed a half-educated nation during the distressing years thru which we have recently passed.

TEACHERS AS CITIZENS ¹

WILLARD E. GIVENS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OAKLAND, CALIF.; AND
PRESIDENT OF THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

One hundred and fifty-seven years ago, July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by prominent, patriotic citizens representing the thirteen original states.

It asserts: "That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed."

The United States of America from its earliest days has been guided by the great American ideal of an equal opportunity for each and every one of its citizens. This ideal has always been and still is our most vital national possession. It has been the cherished hope of millions of human beings during the last century and a half. Our people have always believed that it was possible to create and maintain a society in which every man would have the opportunity of rising to full stature and living the fullest possible life of which he is capable. It has been our belief in the genuine worth and value of each man and woman, the humblest as well as the most exalted, that has kept our ideal always high. This high spiritual ideal has now become badly confused with our materialistic avarice. The struggle for the dazzling prizes of materialism has destroyed in some measure not only our American ideal but our sense of social obligation. As a free and independent people we must face these facts in our situation. In 1914 we were faced with a World War, sudden expansion of trade, and huge profits. Our American dream was changed into a nightmare of gambling, corruption, and mad speculation.

Let me picture for you this situation by a simple, homely illustration:²

Ten men who were financiers chipped in ten dollars each and bought a fine cow that gave ten gallons of milk every day. The milk was divided at night and each man received one gallon as his share. Soon the neighbors far and near heard about the wonderful cow and said to one another, "Think of getting a whole gallon of milk

¹ In securing suggestions for this address, I sent letters to sixty of my fellow workers. I am indebted to all of them for practical suggestions, but I am particularly obligated to three people from whom I have quoted at some length: Mr. George M. Thiriot of Oakland and Mr. Parke S. Hyde and Mr. F. J. Highfill of Los Angeles.

² Quillen, Robert, in the *Fountain Inn Tribune*.

every day. What a wonderful return on a ten dollar investment. I wish I had a share in her."

When this talk was repeated to the ten men, they held a conference, and one of them said, "Let us give these people what they want. Our shares in the cow cost us ten dollars each, and we can sell other shares at the same price."

So they went to a printer and obtained one thousand sheets of paper bearing the legend: "One share in the cow." Then they sold 500 of these shares at ten dollars each, which brought them \$5000, and divided the other 500 among themselves as their reward for being smart. Each man of the ten now had fifty-one shares, whereas in the beginning each had but one. But one of the ten began to worry.

"Look here," he said, "every fellow who bought a share in this cow will expect a gallon of milk tonight, and the cow gives only ten gallons. When the milk is divided into one thousand and ten parts these new shareholders won't get a spoonful. Shares will drop to nothing. We'd better unload while we can."

So the ten men went out on the street to find investors, and each of them sold the fifty shares that had been awarded to him, and thus they obtained a second \$5000 to divide among them. But now night was drawing near, and again one of the ten began to worry.

"There will be a row at milking time," said he. "Hasten abroad and persuade each of the shareholders to sign a proxy, which is a joker authorizing you to cast as you think best the vote to which his share entitles him. Then return with the proxies and we shall do some voting."

At twilight the men met at the barn, and in their hands were one thousand signed proxies to represent the absent shareholders, and the ten were entitled to vote in their own right, for each still held his original share.

"Now," said the one who did the talking, "we must organize. This company needs a president, a treasurer, and eight vicepresidents. That gives each of us a job, and since there are ten of us and the cow gives ten gallons, it is moved and seconded that each of us receive a salary of one gallon of milk per day. All in favor say 'Aye'."

And then they milked the cow.

We all remember October, 1929, when we were called upon to suffer the crash that came. The whole situation is too recent to need repeating.

Suddenly in the midst of our hardship and suffering, we were faced with a dramatic banking holiday, which brought the American people to a sudden and keen realization of the fact that the spiritual values of life are more fundamental and important than material things, including the almighty dollar. We were brought to the realization again that the great American spiritual ideal must be relied upon, with faith in ourselves and in the future.

Each one has to choose for himself what is permanently satisfying. We know that nothing will prove lastingly satisfying which does not meet the needs of the deepest part of our natures.

The present period of crisis is a pause between the materialistic orgy which culminated in October, 1929, and a new period which may be a great advance or it may be merely another money-crazed debacle in which our American ideal may be destroyed. The choice must be made by our citizens, a substantial group of which is the public-school teachers of America.

From the beginning of our country, the public-school teacher has not had the privilege of exercising the full rights of an American citizen. We have been permitted to slip quietly to the polls and cast our ballots, but we

have not been allowed to discuss political issues or to take any leadership in matters affecting the welfare of our government.

We are now faced with the possible collapse of our economic order. We are called upon to save the nobler qualities of our democratic society and to help destroy the sarcomatous growths now ravishing our society. Shall we as teachers, before it is too late, assume the position of leadership until recently held by politicians, capitalists, bankers, industrialists, and profit-seekers of all kinds, and by means of enlightened and disinterested leadership serve the youth of our country by arousing them to wise and unselfish rebuilding of our whole situation out of the sorry mess that is now upon us? The situation calls for great effort. To succeed in but a part will require many changes, both in our present point of view and in our present practises.

Education has been altogether too much concerned with the present. "Education is, as a rule, the strongest force on the side of what exists and against fundamental change; threatened institutions, while they are still powerful, possess themselves of the educational machine, and instil a respect for their own excellence into the malleable minds of the young."¹

This more or less unconscious defense of the status quo has placed the teacher in an ignominious position. I well recall a young high-school principal who issued instructions to the teachers on the procedure to be followed during fire drills. Each of his bulletins ended with the emphatic injunction, "The teacher must follow his class out of the room and act as a leader." The only opportunity which most teachers have availed themselves of in the past has been similar to this. They have followed along in the rear of movements over which they have had no control, and of which they have hardly been a part.

Too often the worn-out catch words of business have been handed on to them. When salesmanship had made threadbare its selling service to the public, the teachers all over the country began to "sell education" to the people. It was situations like this that evoked the sneer of Bernard Shaw: "Education is always driving the tacks where the carpet was two weeks ago."

Responsible citizenship for the teacher should mean the production of understanding citizens from among the students in the classroom. Here opportunity beats an anvil chorus. The opportunity is for the wise teacher whose mind ranges widely in the field of economics and world affairs. We must help break down our provincial attitude. Students can be made to realize that they "still have all that has sustained the spirit of man for centuries—the soil, the sky, the sea, spring and sunlight, music and books, and the love of woman. The first thing they must dismiss from their minds is that it is their responsibility to rebuild the world as it existed previous to October, 1929; that was an unbalanced and orgiastic world that held no promise of enduring happiness for mankind, and those who wish for its return are only holding back the hands of the clock."²

¹ Russell, Bertrand. *Why Men Fight*. Century Co., New York. 1917.

² Preston, John Hyde. "To the Class of 1933." *Forum*, June, 1933.

From the teachers of America should come the influence which will make our somewhat mad world of selfish people realize that democracy will have to adjust itself to reality. The citizen-teacher will have to be a quietly superior person, with economic and social vision, with little sentimentality, with a warm affection for humanity, high integrity, large patience, independence of thought, and scorn for the petty attitudes that so often enter into the practise of teaching.

The citizen-teacher must not be a pessimist nor must he be a "vulgar optimist bustling in with his talk of silver linings."¹ In the examination of life against the light of reality it is found to be "neither rosewater nor bitter aloes."

Can our present teacher-training colleges with their emphasis on methodology select, train, and allocate enough such citizen-teachers? Can the present administrative officers the country over give such teachers reasonable working loads? Can they secure academic freedom? Can they provide the amenities that will make teaching pleasurable and keep the citizen-teachers a long time in their respective communities? Can they surround such teachers with a strong arm of protection from the attacks of those whose present control of affairs is entrenched in a passing economic system?

The breadth of mind and spirit that the teacher can develop in the individuals of the community will be the teacher's best contribution to citizenship. His workshop is the classroom of the public schools. To vote regularly is important, but incidental. To hold public office is almost impossible unless some way is found to reduce the burden of hours and pupil load. To give advice and to conduct routine instruction are not enough. But to make a generation know that unlimited construction of machines is dangerous when the social implications of machinery are not known; that to squander untold wealth in fighting devices for protection is folly when no one knows what they protect; and that to worship progress is almost madness when no one knows whither the progress is leading us—these are the aspects of the imagination and the intellect and without them in a considerable and influential part of its citizenry, no people can hope long to escape the fatal consequences of its own ignorance.

Teachers for generations have been recognized as "good citizens," as people who are devoting a lifetime of service to the training of the children of others that their children may grow into useful adults with the proper outlook on life and society. The teacher's creed has always been one of giving, not getting. Teachers are not prone to shirk plain responsibilities. A large part of the salary of teachers goes to the support of less fortunate relatives and friends. Credit institutions seek the accounts of school teachers because they are good risks.

Six to ten months' work per year has been the teacher's lot, and much of the time between the periods of employment has been spent on self-improvement to the end that he might better serve the children of the nation. No profession can boast of a more altruistic motive in life. Yet in spite of the

¹ Priestley, J. B. "On Vulgar Optimists." *I For One*. Dodd, Mead and Co., New York. 1924.

teacher's many qualifications as a citizen, he has been criticized, brow-beaten, threatened, ordered, sued, vilified, and otherwise maltreated when in any way he has turned his education or devoted any of his time to political endeavors. Just why seems to be quite a mystery. The teacher is not recognized as a citizen with all privileges or rights of other free citizens.

Let me quote you from the present rules and regulations of the board of education of one of our cities in one of our most enlightened states:

Teachers and other employees of the school district shall not directly or indirectly engage in campaigns for the election or defeat of any candidate for a member of the board of education. This shall not affect their right to vote as they deem proper.

We have cases where teachers have run for public office and have been ordered by boards of education to withdraw promptly from such degrading activities, or their immediate dismissal would ensue. It is interesting to note, however, that it has been established by court action that teachers are citizens and as such have a right to run for public office. Then why all this stigma to a teacher participating in politics? Why this censure of the teachers association for maintaining an advisory group at a state capitol during a legislative session when hundreds of measures affecting the very life and future of thousands of children of the state are under consideration?

Is all this feeling toward teachers participating in politics based on the assumption that politics is a rotten mess and teachers, being a rather decent lot, might be corrupted and the quality of their teaching lowered, or is it based on the fear that if teachers ever do become politically conscious and act concertedly that some of the present practises in politics will be cleaned up?

Let me quote to you from page 69 of the *Review of Reviews* for April, 1930, a passage with reference to the attitude of the board of education in the city of Chicago:

And so it happened that for years about the only active agitation against the tax administration was that carried on by a group of teachers organizations in the public schools of the city. * * * The teachers of Chicago have virtually been placed in a position where they had to take the bull by the horns or be gored by it, and they courageously chose the former alternative. * * * They have been instrumental in concentrating attention upon tax conditions at times when no one else cared or had the courage to do so. The strongest evidence of their effectiveness in this respect is the extreme irritability with which their activities have been regarded by tax officials and other government representatives, culminating in a public threat by the president of the board of education of Chicago to discharge any teacher who contributed to a proposed investigation of the tax system.

I have just quoted to you from the *Review of Reviews* for 1930. Let me now give you a statement from the *Nation* of May 10, 1933:

After going unpaid for nearly a year, Chicago's 14,000 public-school teachers staged an educational program of their own consonant with the modern "learn by doing" formula. The city owes them some \$30,000,000, an average of \$2,140 per instructor. Homes have been lost. Families have suffered undernourishment, even actual hunger. Their life insurance cashed in, their savings gone, some teachers have been driven to panhandling after school hours to get food. They had been advised by Jesse Jones,

Director of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, to persuade the bankers to seek a federal loan to permit Chicago to discharge its indebtedness to the teachers. Under this plan, the banks would use the city's tax-anticipation warrants as collateral. On April 24, having tried vainly for months to negotiate for their pay, the teachers, 5,000 strong, formed into five columns and marched on the city's five leading banks. At the City National, jeering reminders to the chairman of its board, General Charles G. Dawes, of his recent \$90,000,000 loan from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, following his "technically" illegal loans to numerous Insull companies, evoked the former vicepresident's ready profanity. "To hell with trouble-makers," was his reply. When no relief was forthcoming from bankers or city authorities, the teachers demonstrated again two days later. On this occasion they were attacked and clubbed by police—likewise unpaid, but not so much in arrears as the teachers.

Chicago's financial plight antedated the depression. Favoritism and collusion with powerful business interests resulted in flagrant discrimination in tax assessments and laxity in tax collections. Some taxes of the boom year, 1928, have not yet been collected. On the very day when the teachers were receiving an object lesson in civics from policemen's nightsticks, Colonel Robert R. McCormick, editor and publisher of the *Chicago Tribune*, was denouncing before the Advertising Club of New York the "pink doctrines" taught in the nation's schools and colleges.

Is there any real reason why one million of our best educated people should be barred from the privileges and responsibilities of real citizenship?

For years in this country while the teacher has been devoting his time to the altruistic pursuits of his calling, there has been developing the great cult of the "Worshippers of the Golden Calf," the followers of the almighty dollar. Money has become their god. We have built great temples of marble and granite in which to worship these man-made gods. We have called some of these temples *stock exchanges* in which, by much "abracadabra" and wand waving, we have wished ourselves wealthy by fictitious inflation of stock prices, when, lo! the magic spell bursts and we are brought face to face with real values. Our man-made bubbles of material, so-called wealth, have burst in our faces and left us bewildered. Institutions which we believed infallible have dissolved and the men who headed them have either been sent to the penitentiary or have left for foreign countries.

Here lies the first assignment of the teacher-citizens in the present crisis. Young America must be taught that the simple spiritual virtues will in the end bring more real happiness than hoarded material wealth; that spiritual values cannot be taken from us, but material things can be wiped out overnight. How much of the past "get-rich-quick" attitude of our country in general can we attribute to something lacking in us as teacher-citizens?

The school is the coordinator of all the right-minded agencies in a conscious effort to combat the growing and engulfing influence of graft, gangsterism, and general breaking down of organized society. Teachers must become politically conscious and become aware (not so suddenly as to startle them) of the tremendous responsibilities which fall upon them in the definite working out of our social program. This means that the highest type of individual must be induced to accept teaching as his profession. It means that those who seek public office must be carefully investigated before election, and after election carefully watched to see that public service rather than private gain is the controlling motive.

Many will howl to high heaven when such a proposal is made and decry any political activity on the part of teachers, but where is the agency to come from to combat the evil forces which are all but engulfing us? If it is not the job of the teacher-citizen to educate to a higher basis, whose job is it? Only by education in its largest sense will we ever elevate ourselves to cope better with our economic, financial, social, and moral problems.

Why do I say that in real situations teachers must head such a coordinating movement of all right-thinking groups? Because teacher-citizens are trained to serve and are altruistic in the main. No group has spontaneously developed any such ability or willingness to assume the responsibilities. Small organized minorities have ruled and gained power simply because the moral forces have been disorganized and inarticulate. With the American public school as a nucleus and the coordinating agency for all right-thinking groups, graft and corruption can be dethroned, both in business and in politics.

A large order—yes. But who other than the teacher-citizens will volunteer? Where can we find a larger call to real citizenship? America must have a spiritual reawakening on some basis above a gold standard if she is to assume real leadership.

May I make clear what I am trying to say by a simple illustration. For a short time, I shall speak to you representing two groups of people. The thinking of these groups is vastly different in its nature. Perhaps heretofore very little thinking aloud has been done on this subject, but the time has now come when it is necessary for both these groups to lay all cards on the table in order that the public may know better how to analyze the situation.

First of all, I shall represent Mr. Jones as a leader of the self-centered, self-seeking groups and special interests that have for many decades past constituted self-appointed committees whose duties were to control all governmental functions—local, state, and national. The thinking of Mr. Jones has never before been said aloud to the public. We shall now have the opportunity of hearing him speak his mind to the school teachers of America:

Ladies and Gentlemen. As the representative of many organizations, I stand before you as your friend to give you some very definite instructions. You are about to overlook some very pertinent facts which may cause you to jeopardize your jobs in the future. For many ages past you have been very quiet, inactive, and neutral in all matters of importance. I have come before you to demand that you continue the same policy in the future.

First of all let me inform you that you are not citizens of America in the full meaning of the term. You merely have the right to vote. But you have no right to full citizenship when it comes to influencing public opinion. You must not be quoted by the public press in regard to any political matters. When it comes to the election of officers whether they be local, state, or national, you may vote, but you dare not express an opinion in the presence of others. Regardless of the fact that you may be better qualified for the selection of the members of a board of education than any other group of citizens, remember that on all these problems you must be silent. Those who are primarily interested in the education of girls and boys must limit their activities to that particular field and leave all political matters to those who have an eye for the making of money and the accumulation of wealth. On all matters of taxation and school legislation we again demand of you that you keep your hands off. You are

entirely ignorant of the goal that our organizations constantly seek. Life to us is not the training of girls and boys, but the obtaining of the maximum amount of money with the minimum amount of effort. We have noticed that our dividends diminish in proportion to your activities. Therefore, stay out of politics.

I recognize the fact that you have spent sixteen years of your lifetime in the public schools and colleges of America in preparing to be good, clean, broadminded citizens, but I maintain that public education is a failure in that it stresses morality and character and citizenship, whereas we are interested in money. I am further aware of the fact that you cannot get a certificate to teach until you have had a course in "government," but if by chance you gained any knowledge about the proper management of government, you must never reveal those facts to the public. You have also had courses in economic problems, but such courses teach you economy for the masses and do not contribute to our well-being. The very textbooks you have studied are opposed to such special interests as I represent. Therefore, I give you fair warning! Do not in any way lift your voices in opposition to our policy or practise. Our organization have been operating for ages past, and school teachers have shown but little concern.

Now may I continue my instructions to you more quietly and even more secretly. We political henchmen do not know much about the theory of democratic government, but we do know a great deal about political graft and practical politics. Stand ye therefore at our command and move neither to the right nor the left. We do not ask you to boost for us, but we do demand of you that you remain silent. We are now lions at bay. Many of our civic organizations have turned against us. Investigating committees are after us on every side. If all the school teachers in America and all the rest of our college- and university-trained citizens were to exercise the full rights of citizenship just at this time, we would be doomed!

You must all remember that the long and tedious years of your training in preparing for your positions which you now occupy have naturally placed you in direct opposition to crooked politics and grafting in public offices.

I am further aware of the fact that yours is only one of the many groups who are paid a monthly salary from the funds obtained from the public thru the process of taxation, and that all these other groups—city employees, county employees, state and federal employees—do have the full rights of citizenship, but your case is different. You must not attempt to influence the mind of the public. The illiterate laborer who has never gone to school a day in his life has a right to say what he pleases in regard to the political conditions, but you must not. It is easy for us to deceive the masses in general, so long as the teachers, who can reach and influence every race and class of people, remain silent. I realize that the school teachers do reach more than 90 percent of all the homes in America today, and that if their influence were wielded for the good of the public in general, then all of our self-seeking, special interests would suffer. Our business cannot be jeopardized. I repeat it. You are not citizens, but school teachers. You shall not appear before our state legislature, nor our city council, nor even the board of education that employs you. Others have a right to say what they please, but you must be silent and let crooked politics have its way. Beware! I give you warning. Be silent.

Now in answer to the instructions given by Mr. Jones representing the self-centered interests, I shall speak for Mr. Smith who represents the school teachers of America:

I am glad to reply to your threats and intimidations. I am speaking for the citizen-teachers of America. First of all, I want to inform you that we are citizens. We do have the full rights of citizenship. It is not only our opportunity, but our responsibility and our obligation to take an active part in our government and in all our civic affairs. Every red-blooded American school teacher is now ready to fight against the pernicious practises that helped to bring on this present nationwide situation.

From the intimidations you offer, you infer that we are cowards, that we are afraid to take part in our government. You desire to hold over us a big political club and to intimidate us. You insinuate that if we do not remain silent and neutral that we are apt to lose our jobs on account of your political chicanery.

Are our jobs so dear that we are willing to sacrifice the welfare of hundreds of thousands of girls and boys and honest, hard-working citizens in order that you may continue your pernicious practises? No! A thousand times, no! If we cannot be public-school teachers and citizens at the same time, then we choose to be citizens. Our government is face to face with a real struggle, and the public-school teachers of America are in the trenches ready to fight for a better, cleaner, and more wholesome condition. We will not remain silent and inactive in civic affairs. We are not cowards. We are red-blooded American citizens and taxpayers qualified by professional training for leadership in the war on civic corruption, aroused to action by the menace of that corruption to the new generation of citizens entrusted to our care, and we propose to exercise our full rights as citizens hereafter at any cost.

A NEW CITIZENSHIP

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WASHINGTON, D. C.

One hundred and fifty-seven years ago today the United States declared themselves free and independent of Great Britain. It may be well to ask at this point, What changes have occurred in our national policies? What indication have we that we are a nation in fact?

In the last part of the eighteenth century, it was difficult with poor communication, with no telephone, no telegraph, no radio, and with a very poor newspaper circulation, to get a spirit of real independence established in America. But we have been now a century and a half attempting to set up what we may call an American spirit. How far has this been accomplished? Have we a real American culture? Have we things for which we care enough to fight rather than to see them perish? It is to matters of this sort that we should give our attention.

Very early in Washington's first term as President of the United States the French Revolution broke out. Americans generally sympathized with France, especially so after the other European nations sided against France, for France had helped us gain our independence. But the French representative in this country, Citizen Genet, undertook to treat Americans as if they were really a colonial dependency of the French nation. Only a sharp rebuke to Genet on Washington's part and the most careful statesmanship by our President saved the country from what would have been a most unfortunate coalition. Not only was there pro-French feeling thruout the nation but anti-English feeling also was generally aroused. There had been trouble over the Treaty of Peace with England. England still held military posts in our territory and had as yet failed to make the settlements which she had agreed to make for slaves and other property taken during the war. John Jay had been sent to settle these questions. Eventually he did make a treaty. But it did not cover all the points at issue, altho it did some things exceedingly well. And not the least of these was the time which it gave us to prepare for an actual war which came in 1812.

But Washington did strive for and did secure one principle in American policy, namely, neutrality in all European affairs. This was the first great step in cutting us loose from a colonial attitude toward Europe and making us really a nation. It was reiterated by Jefferson in his famous inaugural statement, "Peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none." And the statements of these two great Presidents were reiterated by Monroe who added his well-known doctrine.

When in 1914-18 there came a great European conflict, our President issued a neutrality proclamation which was observed in the main for nearly three years. Then the Germanic powers having proved the more offensive, we entered the war against them. The events are well known. When we came out of the war we found ourselves in an entirely new position. We had changed from a nation which supplied raw materials and certain manufactured goods to Europe as interest on debts which we owed. We found ourselves suddenly the creditor nation of the world holding claims on all of the victors. And they in turn held claims on the Germanic powers. But we also found that we had the larger portion of the world's gold supply in our own treasury. How could we proceed as before the war now when the rest of the world owed us? But it happened that there followed in this country a period of great prosperity, not a period of prosperity for agriculture but a period of prosperity for nearly everything else. It seemed to loom up like a great ocean wave until 1929 when it subsided just as rapidly. Then we began for the first time to consider where we were. War debts came to the front, moratoriums were proposed, and various other schemes for dealing with a depression were suggested. It was time for us to consider carefully our own situation. What had happened in those 150 years since we had gained independence?

When Washington had declared for our neutrality and when Jefferson had talked of entangling alliances with none, we were a nation of approximately, five million people, a fifth of whom were slaves. We were scattered along a coast line without good roads or other means of rapid communication. But in 1929, we were a nation of over 120 millions spread out over a great continent and closely knit together by railroads and other means of communication which had not even existed in the earlier period. Not only had our country shrunk in size viewed from the time that it took to get over it, but the world also had shrunk. The Europe which was some ninety days away in the colonial period was, after Lindbergh's famous flight, but twenty-six hours away. The prices of many of our commodities were no longer fixed by the goods to be had in America but were determined by the world's supply of goods at prices recorded in the market at Liverpool. Should not this make a difference in our attitudes as citizens? Yet we were still teaching in our schools the foreign doctrines of Washington, Jefferson, and Monroe, just as we had been for one hundred years. In that hundred years a new policy to meet new conditions should have been developed. It required that on all goods manufactured outside this country a tariff designed not for revenue but for protection be levied. It assumed that all such goods could

and should be manufactured in this country and with this policy we have had only short breaks.

We did make concessions, however, in a period of this high protective policy. In the tariff bill of 1897 Congress gave the Executive power to make certain reciprocal concessions to nations and there was a period when we had trade relations of this kind. President Taft also attempted in a special session of Congress to get thru a trade agreement with Canada. In this he was eventually successful but the Canadian Parliament turned down the treaty and nothing came of it.

But the highest point in protective tariffs was reached in the Smoot-Hawley Bill passed by the special session of Congress early in Mr. Hoover's administration. This bill was a part of a national policy of isolation begun in 1920. A thousand economists are said to have petitioned the President not to sign this bill. It was not what he had asked for. Yet he signed it. Today we are participating in a World Economic Conference which is trying to sweep away trade barriers. Where did we err?

I believe that at the conclusion of the war, we should have developed a new foreign policy if we desired to retain our world leadership. Our position in the world was unexampled. If that position were to be a policy of isolation, we should have forgiven and forgotten any claims for war debts. We should also have made provision for curtailing sharply our agricultural developments. Our war president, Woodrow Wilson, had proved himself a great statesman. In 1920 the Republican party was apparently in a very difficult position to reestablish itself. That was proved by the convention which nominated candidates for the presidency if by nothing else. Not one of the Republican leaders could command a majority. Finally the isolationists who controlled the Senate effected a compromise which named one of their own members as a candidate. They succeeded in carrying the press of the nation with them, and after the election of 1920, Republicans controlled both Congress and the presidency. The party itself, however, appeared to be without leaders who understood the new position of America in the world. How could we who had most of the gold in the world and who did not care to enter into a period of free trade with other nations continue to sell our products abroad as we had during the war when we had virtually sold them to ourselves, for our own government had paid for them? But in no other way could we keep up the great agricultural output which had been developed during the war. For more than a year America had virtually fed the Allies. Should we take steps to curtail this agricultural production? Otherwise agriculture must suffer, and it could not suffer very long without bringing the rest of our industries down with it.

Had we chosen then to say farewell to all of our war debts and to have provided a system of taxation to pay these bills ourselves, we might have been able to continue on the policy that we had been pursuing for a hundred years. We could have produced practically all things that we needed with such outstanding exceptions as rubber, coffee, tea, sugar, spices, and a few other incidental articles. Most of these things we could have obtained on

the American continent. We could have done almost entirely without the few goods which we had been receiving from Europe.

When we come to the present, we find the world at a low ebb. We are told that the depression is due to falling off of international trade—that it is necessary to get an international understanding before we can fully recover.

The League of Nations at Geneva has called a great World Economic Conference at London. Of the sixty-seven nations invited to participate in it, all but the Republic of Panama have agreed. It was formally opened on June 12 by the King of Great Britain who called the attention of the conference to the very grave importance of their work. His Majesty said, "And for you gentlemen who from today begin the work of restoration the task is heavy. It will not be changed except thru goodwill and cooperation." President Roosevelt said some months ago, "The great International Conference . . . must succeed. The future of the world demands it." Sir Arthur Salter, writing in the *New York Times* on "The Nations at the Crossroads," said, "The questions classify themselves most conveniently into three categories concerning respectively, monetary policies, problems of credit and indebtedness, and tariffs and trade impediments." The writers in the magazines and newspapers of this country have put the matter in about the same way. "All agree," says Arthur Crawford, "that continued low prices involving disequilibrium between prices and costs contribute to the continuance of the depression."

The price level for 1926 taken as 100, reached 60, we are told, as its lowest point on March 4, 1933, when the banks in this country were all closed. It is now supposed to be about 62. The 1913 level was 70; and the average level for 1931 was 73. Business depends upon stability of prices. It is not possible to restore trade and international business until we can agree on the relationship which should exist between the dollar, the pound, and the franc. It may be necessary for us to make some sort of price index in terms of which prices can be fixed if international trade is to be resumed. That is the first and perhaps the most important problem before the conference.

After this agreement has been made, it will be necessary for the delegates to take up questions of public credit and indebtedness. Prime Minister Macdonald, in the opening address, said, "Behind the subjects I have just mentioned is another of front rank importance . . . I refer to the questions of the world debts which must be dealt with before every obstacle of general recovery has been removed and it must be taken up without delay by the nations concerned. Lausanne has to be completed and this vexed question settled once and for all in the light of present world conditions."

This will be the issue which will try out the United States. The war debts to us were based upon Germany's ability to pay reparations. These reparations have been scaled down at Lausanne to practically nothing. It stands to reason that the people who owe us cannot pay if Germany does not pay them. Should we cancel these debts outright? To do that means to add a heavy load to our already overburdened taxpayer. Or shall we cancel them in return for world disarmament? If this can be secured it

might pay us for it would permit us also to disarm further, saving taxes. Or should we secure special favors of international trade in return for cancelled debts? Or will we refuse to act, allowing the debtor nations to default? If there is to be a default, should we extend more credit to the defaulters? This is a tough problem for our delegates but it is one that must be worked out and probably in one of the ways indicated above.

The third item is now under discussion. Are we in any better position to consider it? Tariffs have been adjusted upward and quotas on imports have been fixed by most of the countries of the world since we passed the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Bill of 1929. We shall not go into detail on what the other nations did. We merely mention it as an instance. But in the summer of 1932, a conference of the British Commonwealth of Nations was held at Ottawa, Canada. It agreed to trade, as far as possible, with one another. This seemed to be the climax of our own high tariff. It appears then that if we desire to get back our world trade it is going to be necessary to change our tariff policy. This will be bitterly debated.

W. B. Donham, dean of the Harvard School of Business, a life-long free trader says on this point:

If we in this country change our tactics and start toward free trade, it will be because powerful groups are more interested in the industries based on mass production than in our other industries, and because they, lacking a general plan, unconsciously sacrifice these other industries on the altar of mass production and risk the future of this country on the hazards of international trade.

The argument for a protective tariff presumes that the working man can have an automobile, a radio, an electric refrigerator, and other modern household appliances, and that he can dress better than can his competitor in other countries of the world. We have secured these things. We had them in 1929. Shall we give them up or shall we struggle to maintain them?

It may seem strange to some that the President of the United States has kept the war debts out of this conference. He realizes only too well what happened to Woodrow Wilson. The Senate itself is clearly opposed to the cancellation of these debts or perhaps to any concessions. The Senate only reflects the will of the people of the United States. When our government was founded it was clearly a compromise with the more aristocratic nations. Few persons in that day had any confidence in the people. The Senate itself had terms of six years. They were selected by the legislators of the states. This was in order to give them a chance to look ahead and do what was best for the country. The Jay Treaty would have never been ratified by a Senate selected as is our Senate today. Nor would we have ever ratified the treaty giving us Alaska, Seward's Folly, as it was called.

So it becomes necessary now for us to work with the voters themselves. We must inform them on what is good and what is bad for the country. Such matters as the debts and other problems arising from this world conference must be carried to them. Therefore I am asking that you consider whether the schools should not take up problems of this kind. I know that in some conservative communities, the schools will be criticized

for any progressive attitude which they may take on matters of this sort, but I rather think that when the depression is over and when schools are looked to again, they will be expected to do work of this kind. This is only a small part of the great peace-time work which the schools can do.

I recall that after the Civil War this Association passed a resolution after a thoro discussion that if the South had had public schools, probably the war would not have happened. Be that as it may, schools were set up in the South, and they did undertake, along with all schools, a study of the government of the United States. At first they memorized the Constitution exactly as it was. Little by little they began to discuss it. Then problems of trust came up and the Constitution course was expanded by adding to the federal Constitution a study of the constitutions of the states; and after 1900, when graft became so prevalent in our cities, we found it necessary to study them. There are now citizenship or civics courses in most schools. These consist of a program which emphasizes local, state, and federal governments, their form and some functions. But in no case are the fundamental laws under which these governments operate studied, and attempts to define their work and to tell what they ought to do are lacking.

The point I want to leave with you is that it is today more important for us to know about the governments of the world than about our own government. We should have some understanding of the background of conferences of this kind and of the basic constitutions of these governments, how far they are responsive to their populations, and how those populations feel toward us.

So I would advocate a year course in government to be entitled, "Some Problems of Democracy" and I should give approximately one-half of the time to these world issues. In this course I would stress internationalism. I would give some account of how this work has grown, how we came to be insistent upon pacific settlements of problems of international concern, how the League of Nations developed, and why it was that we ourselves would not go into it. In older days pure democracy flourished in Greece and later in Rome. It broke down when the population grew too large to meet and consider problems. Representative democracy then developed. It has had much success particularly in this country where it succeeded over a large area and with a large population. Now we should be studying it in Spain, in Italy, in England, in Germany, in France, in Russia, and even in the United States. Possibly these dictatorships mean that there are some problems democracy cannot handle. Are there problems too complex for the average man? Or are there problems in which self-interest will not yield to the good of the whole? Unless we study these questions now how are we to become good citizens of democratic states?

Unless we can understand these peace-time issues, how can we be prepared for possible war-time emergencies? I have an idea that after this generation has passed away and its problems do not beset us any longer, there will be another world war. By that time we shall be as far beyond fighting with

guns as gunpowder was beyond the bows of medieval times. And it will be a world war since we are too close together now to permit a war between nations only. And the determining factor of the next war is likely to be the air. I suspect that the enemy of ours will send across the ocean enough aeroplanes and poison gas to wipe out an entire city at one time. I believe that as the last war developed the long-range gun whose shell was sent thru the stratosphere, so the next war will develop aeroplanes which will sail the stratosphere. I understand that German chemists are now experimenting with such a machine. It has been estimated that they can cross the ocean in four or five hours, or in a fifth or a sixth of the time which it took Lindbergh to cross. Piccard is today the daring explorer of the stratosphere. But once we know more about it, there will be many adventurers in it. I expect therefore that if we have another world war, these adventurers will cross the ocean in ships which, when they get over one of our cities, will settle down until they can see it and then turn loose their shells of poison gas. When war gets to be this dreadful, I think that we shall take steps to settle our disputes in some other way. To study other ways and to get people used to them, I urge every democracy that now exists to offer a year course on its problems.

A NATIONAL OUTLOOK ON EDUCATION

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Anyone who studies the history of our public schools during the past three years is convinced of at least three things: first, that the boards of public education everywhere, with few exceptions, have made a thoughtful and, in the main, successful effort to reduce expenditures for public schools; second, that the drive nationally on the part of certain organizations and individuals for the reduction in governmental expenditures has been, and is, directed primarily at the public schools; and third, that there is an imperative need for the cultivation of a national educational consciousness.

There is ample evidence to show that boards of public education and administrators, nationally and locally, have recognized the need for retrenchment in public expenditures and have responded to it to a degree not evidenced by the controlling bodies of any other unit of government. They realize that drastic economy is a necessity in our national, state, and local corporations.

A survey of retrenchments in educational expenditures, published March 1, 1933, by the United States Office of Education, entitled *Some Effects of the Economic Situation on City Schools* and the studies made by the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education present the evidence which bears out this statement. The first study shows that school operating expenses have been greatly curtailed; appropriations for teachers' salaries have been reduced in one-fourth of the cities from 12 percent to 43 percent and in one-half of them from 2 percent to 13 percent; the items for capital outlay have been reduced 57 percent at a time when building costs are less than

at any time since 1914. Schoolboards have reorganized administrative and supervisory staffs; reduced the number of teaching positions; increased the size of all classes; curtailed the purchase of supplies and textbooks; eliminated such important activities as night schools, summer schools, and other agencies; and have cut appropriations for the physical maintenance of the school plants to the danger point. All this and more has been done in an endeavor to balance school budgets.

From the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education comes corroborative evidence of retrenchments in school budgets. In a recent study by this Commission comprehensive statistical tables are presented which show that in 1932 and 1933 the total annual expenditures for public education in elementary and secondary schools is less than was spent in 1926. From the period between 1927 and 1930, \$400,000,000 a year was expended for capital outlay. In 1933 these expenditures had reached the low figure of \$154,000,000. In terms of expenditures per child this report shows that in 1933 there was spent approximately \$74 per child as compared with \$82 in 1928.

Most of our business institutions were forced into drastic economies because of the falling off in the volume of business done. The public schools, however, have drastically reduced expenditures in the face of a decided increase in the volume of their business. There were 329,000 more pupils enrolled in the public high schools of this country in 1933 than there were in 1932. In spite of this increase there were 15,000 fewer teachers and the total expense for education was reduced \$226,000,000.

Boards of public education, from a local as well as a national point of view, come with clean hands before the court of public opinion on the issue of reduction of expenditures.

It appears curiously inconsistent that the same studies which show how aggressively schoolboards have attacked their budgets should reveal evidence that nationally the drive for the reduction in expenditures has been directed with especial rigor at the public schools.

The bulletin of the Office of Education referred to (Circular Number 79, February, 1933), presents evidence that this is true. The statement made in this bulletin is all the more emphatic because it is couched in the restrained and cautious language of the statistician. It says: "The trend to reduce tax rates for schools more frequently than for other government purposes is true of each group of cities. For example, considering only the 60 cities between 30,000 and 100,000 population, 56 percent decreased tax rates for schools, while only 41 percent decreased the rate for other purposes."

Perhaps one reason this is true is that it is easier and safer to attack public-school budgets than budgets of other governmental units because the former are in the hands, generally, of non-partisan boards of public education without political prestige or preferment.

Those favoring still larger reductions in budgets for the operation of the schools raise the cry of "wasteful extravagance" in their management. At the same time they are careful to assert their concern for the welfare of

public education. Let us be blunt and frank in meeting this charge. There undoubtedly were instances of extravagances during the "hectic twenties." Occasionally some school corporation may have over-built, over-equipped, and over-stocked school buildings. Such extravagances as existed cannot be excused, but they were those of the period. It was a period of expansion in material things. The long and increasing list of sumptuous hotels, apartment houses, and imposing office buildings going in receiverships is evidence that in other fields than education there was unwise management. To dispute such charges, to spend time in trying to locate the responsibility for the material expansion of our school systems is quite beside the point. We gain nothing by hurling charges and counter charges and calling names. We admit and deplore such instances.

Such extravagances as existed are eliminated. Nationally public education has certainly put its house in order.

In view of the evidence easily available of the drastic reductions in school expenditures, the extent of administrative reorganization, and the willingness of boards of education and officials to cooperate in any reasonable program of constructive economy, any further attacks upon the schools must be interpreted as due to ignorance of the facts or selfishness or both. We welcome all suggestions for constructive economy. We expect to continue to combat those who would destroy our school system.

The third point is that we must develop a national educational consciousness. Historically our public education systems are local institutions. In only a few of our states has there been any large exercise of state control. In such states this control has been due largely to the fact that state subsidies for education were given to local communities. In the main the American people have thought of public-school systems in terms of local control. Our attitude has been that if Town A wishes to spend \$100 per pupil for high-school education; to house its pupils in a splendid building; to engage highly trained teachers; and to have a modern course of study, such a course of procedure was peculiarly the province of that corporation. On the other hand, if Town B desired exactly the opposite we were not concerned, but regarded that, too, as logically a local problem.

There are many evidences that we have changed our traditional point of view with respect to the financing of public education. Many of our educational systems in the last twelve months have successfully appealed to state legislatures for relief. In Indiana a State Support Bill was passed by its 1933 legislature. In Michigan the 1933 legislature passed a Sales Tax Bill which is supposed to yield \$14,000,000 or \$15,000,000 for the support of schools there. Numerous other instances could be cited showing a tendency to expand our point of view. Unless there is a great change in the economic situation we may expect within the next twelve months to see an increasing insistence on the part of local corporations that a part of the financial support of public education shall be transferred to the federal government. The Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education held in Washington in January, 1933, incorporated such a recommendation in its findings. How

revolutionary this is apparent to anyone who knows the history of public education of this country.

We, as teachers and administrators, must think increasingly of public education in national rather than in local terms. This does not mean that we favor federal support for public education. It does mean that what happens in any region to any part of our educational system is of concern to all.

It is easier to analyze a situation than it is to propose specific cures for it. There can be no question but that the national outlook on education reveals a very distressing condition. Reports coming into the office of the National Education Association confirm our fears that this coming school year will be hard and difficult for all levels of public education and for private schools as well. Industrially the skies are clearing, but educationally they are still overcast. Our public-school systems and tax-supported higher institutions of learning are creatures of state legislatures. For this reason they, with some outstanding exceptions, did not feel the first effects of the financial upheaval as quickly as private businesses. Unfortunately they will be, because of various laws which have been passed affecting the revenue of the schools, very much slower in recovery. Our public-school systems are now in a legislative as distinguished from an economic depression.

There are three things which may be done on a national scale to aid in meeting this emergency in education:

First, the formation of what the *Journal of the National Education Association* calls a National Board of Strategy. This has been done. President Rosier of the National Education Association and retiring President Potter of the Department of Superintendence appointed the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, of which Dr. John K. Norton of Teachers College, Columbia University, is chairman. This Commission has rendered heroic service to the cause of education in the short time it has been in existence.

Second, the National Education Association, the Department of Superintendence, and all allied organizations must carry forward the unification of all educational interests. We must unite in one great common purpose 800,000 public-school teachers, 2,000,000 members of the various parent-teacher associations, 400,000 schoolboard members, faculties, trustees, and alumni of our various tax-supported higher institutions of learning, and the members of countless civic associations and noon-day service clubs. If this is done, we shall have forged a mighty weapon for the defense of public education. It should always be remembered that when we speak of "fighting" for public education we speak in metaphor. We are not fighting for our jobs or for ourselves, but for the educational birthright of the children of America.

Third, we must so organize nationally and locally that the true purpose of the schools may better be interpreted to the public. There can be no question but that many who would be sincere friends of public education have been bewildered and perplexed by propagandists for destructive economy. It is our duty immediately to lay plans so that nationally a great drive may go forward to acquaint the American people with all of the facts about educa-

tional expenditures. We must make it clear that we favor and are practising sound, constructive economies.

To do these things and more is a gigantic task. It calls for the best we have of strength, ability, and courage. We may be misunderstood, we will be criticized, we may be ridiculed, but the task is so much worth the doing and the stakes are so great that nothing, I am sure, will keep us from its accomplishment.

THE TEACHERS AT THE HELM

MRS. F. BLANCHE PREBLE, PRESIDENT, N. E. A. DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS; AND PRESIDENT, ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO, ILL.

As we view the wreck of our vaunted western industrial civilization it is comparatively easy for all of us to see now what many individual thinkers have always seen—that we must build up a social civilization to take the place of industrialism. There is some tendency to say that democracy has failed, but most thinkers agree that democracy has not been tried; that what we need is a true democracy that will give us a social civilization. But now the question comes—how can we proceed so that we may achieve a social civilization?

We have two outstanding examples across the Atlantic of such achievement thru dictatorship; but thinking Americans are inclined to believe that it can best be accomplished here thru united political action.

Paul Douglas in his recent book, *The Coming of a New Party*, says that such procedure means that our millions of manual workers, farmers, and consumers must learn to think and act together. That means that there must be an organization that can reach every person in these groups and arouse him to the best action of which he is capable. Mr. Douglas says that that organization will be a new political party brought forth for the purpose of making government function for all the people. Now of course that will call for an organization that will reach every state, every community, every home. Already we have an organization that does just that; it is our public-school system, provided we are able to stop the wholesale closing of schools. Teachers are so placed and so equipped that they are the natural leaders in a social civilization. Teachers touch life everywhere. We have never been considered important nor really necessary in the industrial set-up, but even our enemies will admit that as a class we are socially minded, and so I say that teachers will be the natural leaders in a social civilization. But of course to be a leader in the establishment or the re-creation of a government one must be a fully qualified citizen. If you agree with me that teachers are the natural leaders in the movement for a socially minded government, then let us proceed to a consideration of what is necessary in order that teachers may become fully qualified citizens able to participate in effective political action. And here let me say an encouraging word to those of you who still draw back with reluctance when you think of entering politics,

by again quoting from Paul Douglas: "Politics may be an art as truly as music, painting, or sculpture," and I would add as truly an art as teaching.

In addition to the necessary educational qualifications a teacher must have the following four things: (1) freedom from hampering dictation from those above her in the system; (2) an adequate, permanent, and fairly administered salary schedule; (3) a sound retirement plan; and (4) tenure of office.

Good teaching is an artistic performance; it is creative, and we all know that an artist must be free from dictation. Of course even the artist must abide by certain rules and must work within certain well-defined limits. So the teacher must be willing to recognize that she is a part of a system and cannot be a law unto herself entirely; but she must be left free enough so that she can develop her own individual thinking and from that the individual thinking of the child. We have all come to recognize in recent years, that the best aid in the development of children is to have them take the lead wherever possible and learn the things that we feel they must know by following activities proposed as far as possible by themselves. And so it is with teachers, the more freedom that can be given them the more will their own powers be developed. The kind of citizenry that is going to work out a new social civilization to take the place of the industrial wreck must be a thinking people; and if teachers are to take their natural place as leaders in this movement they, too, must be free to think and to act.

To an audience of teachers I need not dwell on the necessity for an adequate and fairly administered salary schedule. But I shall discuss one or two phases. If a salary schedule is set up with the idea that a certain small percentage, say 10 percent, of the teachers are going to receive higher salaries than the others, it should be borne in mind that while it may have appeared that such a plan would result in a great individual effort on the part of teachers to achieve the highest rating and thus the highest salary, what actually occurs is that we have 10 percent of the teaching body suffering from a superiority complex and 90 percent laboring against a feeling of inferiority or of injustice according to the natural bent of each one involved. Also, if a salary schedule is so planned that a teacher must choose high school in order to reach the top when she is better fitted to work with little children, and is happier with the little ones, then some adjustment is needed there. But I think we are pretty well agreed on the merits of the single salary schedule. In spite of the fact that in many of our states not a single teacher is protected by any kind of pension plan, I am sure that it is not necessary here to argue the point that the welfare of education demands that all teachers be protected in this way. We need to keep working very aggressively for a long time to come in all our organizations for the improvement and extension of the pension idea.

This brings me to the fourth point—tenure of office for teachers. I have put it last in the list of conditions necessary that a teacher may become a full-fledged citizen because I consider it the most fundamental. No teacher can apply her thinking powers to the solution of a political problem such

as we have before us in America today if she must think first of how anything she may say or do may affect her ability to hold her position. The teachers, as well as thousands, if not millions of other Americans, are going to have to think and to think freely and constructively and then to act boldly and wisely to save our people from annihilation by the machine age.

Now I come to the question—how are teachers to achieve adequate salaries, pensions, tenure, and freedom from dictation? And the Classroom Department answers in this way—by organizing first locally, then on a state-wide, and finally on a national basis in groups composed of classroom teachers only. Too long have teachers been content to believe that their sole duty lay within the four walls of their schoolroom, and that the establishment of school policies and the defending of school programs was the duty of the administrators alone. It is becoming fairly easy now to convince school people that it is going to take all that all of us can do to save American education; but there are still too many of us, among both teachers and administrators that do not yet realize that the teacher cannot have any real opportunity to develop himself except in groups composed of his own kind. We must have leaders, many of them, leaders chosen because of their qualities of leadership, and because of their ability to gather up a following and to inspire that following always to strive for better things.

Our teachers associations the country over have done a magnificent piece of work in developing education to the point it had reached five years ago. Our state associations and their divisions, our local groups, often embracing every educational employee in an entire system, have made their contribution in past years. But now we have reached the place where each individual member of every organization must be aroused to do a very definite part of the work that is necessary.

The Classroom Department was organized on the principle that if teachers are to be aroused to the point where they are willing and able to carry their share of the responsibility for originating and defending school policies they must meet in groups by themselves.

The administrators, superintendents, and principals who are present, know that as they meet their teachers in their regular faculty meetings that those teachers are often indifferent and unwilling to take any responsibility for establishing policies. The great majority of them show no signs of even having any ideas about the subjects which the administrator may be so anxious to have them discuss. But if these same principals and superintendents could see those same teachers in a meeting of their own, as I have seen them and many of you have seen them, attack the same or similar problems with vigor and intelligence they would realize what we mean when we say that teachers must be organized first in groups where the power of position and the voice of authority of position may not be heard. The classroom teachers association forms a true democracy. The leaders who are chosen to represent a group that is really democratic will be found to be such leaders as will carry out the ideas and ideals of the group. If, however, the organization is not

truly democratic, and if the leaders when chosen, cut themselves loose from the organization, they may make many mistakes.

It might seem to a man in the business world that the way to get teachers to apply themselves to a problem is to tell them to study it, but we who have been following classroom teacher work since our Department was organized and before that know that the way to get teachers to attack problems vigorously and intelligently is for them to meet by themselves often enough so that their own leaders may be developed and so that the ideas of the group may be crystallized and followed by united action.

When teachers have their own organization the first place they will go for advice will be to the superintendent, provided he has their confidence. He can say to them what, in precarious times like these, he may not be able to say to his board of education. But if the teachers adopt his idea they can take it to the board as the decision of the teachers, and if it is a decision made by a good majority of those in the system the board will heed it instead of taking off the head of an individual who might have proposed it.

The wise superintendent cherishes his teachers organizations and learns to use them to put over his own propaganda. But it must be for the good of all if it is endorsed by the teachers.

Now to come back to the teachers as a political force, to teachers who have freedom from dictation, an adequate salary schedule, a sound pension plan, and tenure of office. How strong will they be and how much can they accomplish in time of great social need? Chicago's teachers tho often hungry and poorly clad were strong enough to keep the schools open, and in thousands of cases gave the children food for their bodies as well as for their minds. We are strong enough to continue to carry on until we and our fellows thruout the country have learned how to bring out from the wreck of industrialism a social civilization. We are strong enough to keep our freedom, our pension, our tenure and, in the end, our salary schedule. The struggle is not yet ended but we are tightening our belts and facing forward.

When the story of the second American Revolution is written, and we hope it will have been a bloodless one, who can say how much of the victory that is to be won was due to the fact that in the middle of this country stood 14,000 teachers who thru 30 years had won for themselves the things that make teachers able to stand by when trouble comes.

Now let me say in conclusion to the classroom teachers: Go back next year with a determination to meet by yourselves and thrash out to the end all the problems that are facing you. Get information and advice wherever you can, but form your own policies by free discussion among yourselves, then go into the larger all-inclusive groups of the state and the national organization with these policies and stand by them.

Let me say to the administrators that if the majority of the teachers in your system are not now in an organization of their own do everything you can to encourage such an organization. To those of you who have such groups encourage them in every way so that the problems that have gone

far beyond being solved by the administrators may be solved by the teachers as leaders in the new social democracy that must be evolved for America.

TEACHER TRAINING FOR THE NEW AGE

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The old order is changing, giving place to the new. What will be the character of the new order? It is essential that one have a vision of the new social order before attempting to outline a program of teacher education for the new age.

Dr. Harold Rugg, in a very stimulating volume recently published entitled *The Great Technology*, says that civilization may take one of five different directions. That American civilization is at the crossroads is apparent even to the superficial student of social trends. We may have the choice of a number of different directions, but it appears to me more likely that we shall move in one of two directions.

First, we may produce on this continent a civilization best represented by Millet in his picture, "The Angelus," and by Markham in his poem, "The Man with the Hoe." In such a society the masses, possibly a hundred million or more people, will constantly live in dread of poverty. They will become peasants or peons. Above these will be the middle class of ten to twenty millions. This middle class will be permitted to enjoy a limited degree of prosperity to keep it satisfied. It will be composed mainly of members of the professions, government officials, managers and clerks of businesses owned largely by the upper class. At the top of this social structure an autocracy of wealth limited in number to a million or less will control and direct the destinies of all the others.

This is the direction in which our civilization has been moving until recently. It is the course which the vested interests and "money changers" of our nation are attempting to chart for us.

If this is the type of civilization which the new age is to bring, then the character of the program needed for the education of teachers will be a mechanistic training designed to produce automatons who will accept orders and obey commands, for theirs will not be to reason why. A social order of this pattern will provide for the masses elementary education of only the most rudimentary character. Secondary and higher education will be provided exclusively for those who are able to pay for it. Who among you has not heard such a social philosophy advocated in recent years? It comes from the privileged classes who believe the masses must be kept in ignorance to be kept satisfied. They recognize that ignorance is their ally, as it has always been thru the ages the ally of kings, potentates, and tyrants.

But will the American people who have been led in the past by such leaders as Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, and are now being led by Franklin D. Roosevelt, permit such a social order to be clamped down upon them? God forbid! The

struggle, however, between the autocracy of wealth and the interest of the great common people goes on with the betting odds at present in favor of the people. In this battle for democracy the American school teacher can be a very vital influence in determining the outcome if he has the courage and dares enlist for freedom.

So confident am I of the future that I refuse to consider outlining a program of teacher education for such a social order as that which I have just described. I prefer to think of the new era which we are now entering as a renaissance more glorious than that ever experienced by any nation in the centuries past. St. John on the isle of Patmos reported a vision of a new heaven and a new earth. If we have the imagination, the courage, and the passion to make dreams come true we can create on this American continent at least a new earth.

That the time is ripe for the actual organization of a new society is evident to many of our foremost thinkers in education. I thoroly agree with Dr. George S. Counts when he says: "We hold within our hands the power to usher in an age of plenty, to make secure the lives of all, and to banish poverty forever from the land. The only cause for doubt or pessimism lies in the question of our ability to rise to the stature of the times in which we live." Dr. Rexford G. Tugwell, in his new book, *The Industrial Discipline*, is our authority for saying: "We possess every needful material for Utopia, and nearly everyone knows it: it is a quite simple conclusion in most minds that control ought to be taken out of the hands of people who cannot produce it (Utopia) from the excellent materials at their disposal." Dr. Harold Rugg has convincingly told us that we are now approaching: "The first epoch on the time-line in history in which man can bring forth a civilization of abundance, of tolerance, and of beauty. A potentially great culture, because having invented efficient prime movers, man need no longer be a cringing slave of nature. . . . Great—because the scientific method can at last be applied to the man-man relationships as well as to the man-thing relationships. In a word—great—because man can live creatively both as Artist and as Technologist."

Some of the problems of this new civilization into which I trust we are entering are well outlined by Stuart Chase in his book, *A New Deal*. He says: "More important will be the problem of how to live; how to use fruitfully one's leisure time; how to improve the biological stock; how to educate; how to love and marry without emotional miseries which now beset us; how to develop the arts; how to get the most out of life. These are the real problems of a civilized people who have yoked a billion of mechanical horse power. To go on stumbling thru economic pits and mires, under a sky recurrently black with the horror of insecurity and even starvation, is tragic and needless waste."

And, finally, this new social order is to be dominated by a new ideal best expressed by a sentence lifted from the inaugural address of President Roosevelt: "Happiness lies not in the mere possession of money; it lies in the joy of achievement, in the thrill of creative work."

I dare to believe that in the new age we will think in terms of human values rather than in terms of vast stores of material possessions for a few favored members of society who cannot consume them. If we do, then man for the first time can turn his attention primarily to life as an intellectual and spiritual adventure. It is for a social order in which the masses can give a major portion of their time to the errands of the mind that I wish to forecast a teacher-training program for the new age.

In a social order where human values are paramount the teacher will become a much more important agent in molding the character of our civilization than he has been in the past. The nature of the service which the teacher renders makes of him little less than the architect of society. The real progress of a nation is conditioned very largely by the work of its teachers. If the intellectual level of the masses of our nation is to be raised, it will come about by teachers sharing their culture with the children who attend our schools.

The administration at Washington, in drafting teachers—Moley, Tugwell, and Berle of Columbia; Sprague of Harvard; Dodd of Chicago; Morgan of Antioch; Dickinson of Pennsylvania; Oliphant of Johns Hopkins; Myers of Cornell; and others—to help reclaim the Republic from the debacle into which she has drifted, has given recognition to the expert service which they can render a society attempting to escape from *laissez-faire* to a social order with some plan and design. It is a confirmation of Plato's conclusion made more than two thousand years ago that a republic should be governed by philosophers.

These observations lead me to a statement of the first proposition I would lay down relative to teacher training for the new age: *In the new age the teacher must be an educated individual.* This has not been true in the past nor is it true today of many teachers. It would not be an exaggeration to say that at least 25 percent of the elementary teachers of our nation are half-educated persons. Eliminating towns and cities, we find that over 60 percent of the rural teachers fail to meet the lowest standard of preparation accepted as minimum training by any authority working in the field of teacher education. This means that approximately 200,000 to 250,000 persons are "keeping school" in this country, drawing public funds for a service which they are incapable of rendering, and denying little children their social and intellectual heritage. One of the tragedies of this situation is that in most communities there are well-educated and professionally trained people available for many of the positions now held by incompetents. Many of America's best teachers are unemployed today. This state of affairs is not due to an economic condition which denies communities better trained teachers and forces them to employ persons inadequately prepared for teaching. It is all too frequently the result of nepotism, political chicanery, personal favoritism, and in some cases the actual sale of schools to the highest bidder. I do not censure too severely these thousands of poorly equipped individuals who are so desperately holding on to their positions thru the machinations of inadequate certification laws. I pity them. They are, how-

ever, so much dead wood in the profession. They keep education from moving forward at a more rapid pace. They tend to cause the public to discredit the entire profession, for many people do not discriminate between the educated and the half-educated. Our profession has more than an academic interest in this condition. It should move with all its force to arouse the public from its lethargy on this problem. It should, particularly in rural sections where the condition is worse, educate public opinion to a realization that the school is maintained in the interest of the children and not to give the teacher a job.

It has been my observation that the public is willing to accept the lowest standard of excellence any professional group will tolerate. Higher qualifications of entrance to a profession, nobler conceptions of its service to society, and more efficient practises have to come from within the profession. Our profession should attempt, therefore, to see that every member bears the stamp of an educated and professionally trained individual. Would it be too much to ask that the last teacher in America should have at least four years of preparation on the college level for his work by 1950? Nothing short of this will, in my opinion, be adequate preparation for the teacher of the new age.

In the new order we must not make the mistake of believing that four years of general education beyond the secondary school is adequate preparation for teaching. This fallacy prevails today in the mind of the layman. It is so deeply rooted in the public conscience that it will be hard to eradicate. Nowhere will you find people believing four years of general education prepare young men or women to practise medicine, law, or engineering, or to qualify them for the ministry. Just why this misconception regarding teaching exists is hard to understand. Its explanation is probably found in what we term the cultural lag on the part of both the lay public and the profession itself. Reporting to the American Association of Teachers Colleges, Dr. E. S. Evenden says: "Estimates indicate that more than 1100 of the 1490 institutions of higher education are concerned with the education of teachers." Suppose this condition were true in medicine or law. Picture what a chaotic order would prevail in these professions. Why is it that there are not some 1100 institutions engaged in turning out members of these professions? The explanation, I believe, lies in the constructive and positive attitude of such splendid organizations as the American Medical Association and the American Bar Association, which fix standards that bar the pseudo-medical school or law college. The profession and the public are thus protected from half-educated doctors and lawyers. The example of these associations should be an inspiration and a challenge to the National Education Association to aid in making a similar contribution to the profession of teaching. Just how many of the 1100 institutions attempting to train teachers are prepared adequately to perform this service for society no one is able to say. That more than half of the number do not have a laboratory school or access to such a school is a known fact. That a laboratory school is an essential factor in the education of a teacher is a principle accepted by every authority of any note in this field. It would, therefore, not be inaccurate to say that pos-

sibly half of those institutions attempting to educate teachers are not prepared to produce a professionally educated teacher. By inference my second proposition is: *The new age will demand that the institution attempting to educate teachers shall provide curriculums designed to serve the needs of teachers.* This proposition implies the operation of a laboratory school, or the control of an affiliated school, which may be used for this purpose. It is as easy to educate a doctor without a hospital as it is to prepare a teacher without a laboratory school.

Some of you may interpret this as a thrust at the liberal arts college. It is not so intended. No one could possibly have a higher regard for these colleges than I have. I go so far as not to object to allowing the college of liberal arts to prepare teachers so long as it will not attempt to prepare them by way of the liberal arts curriculum. No institution has a right to regard the preparation of teachers as a by-product. If these colleges are to insist on the education of teachers, they should be expected to offer a teacher-training program of studies comparable to the best to be found in the teachers colleges. The teachers college that adopts a liberal arts curriculum—and some of them are guilty—and attempts to educate teachers thru it deserves far more criticism than does a college of liberal arts. The teachers college of the new order must be distinctly and exclusively a professional school.

Certain guiding principles should govern our thinking in the preparation of curriculums for the education of teachers. They may be stated briefly as follows:

1. Each curriculum should include courses to give adequate instruction in and preparation for a specific teaching position.
2. Each curriculum should include a common group of professional courses.
3. Each curriculum should include a group of informational and cultural courses representing the fields of English, languages, mathematics, science, and social science.
4. Each curriculum should make some provision for individual choices of students so that their work may be planned to permit them to pursue certain individual interests, aptitudes, and preferences.
5. Each curriculum should include a common group of physical education courses designed to promote the health and recreational needs of students.

My third proposition is: *The teacher of the new social order must be educated in the "creative, expressive activities" of society.* In the past teachers have been prepared to teach children to fit into a working world. We emphasized the three R's because they were thought to be practical. They helped in the making of a living. Value was placed on those subjects which resulted in winning for the individual material gain. They were called fundamental subjects, and all other subjects have been regarded as frills. But when a civilization adopts a thirty-hour working week with approximately eighty hours of waking time, left for leisure, which are the fundamental subjects? Which is the more important if one had to choose between them—a command of the processes in arithmetic or an appreciation of music and some skill on the amateur level as a musician? Which will add more to the sum total of human happiness in a lifetime—the skill to write or a knowledge

of art which comprehends something of the beauty of a sunset, the loveliness of nature, and the stateliness of good architecture? Shall we not have to change our thinking in the new civilization with respect to those subjects formerly regarded as fads and frills? Nothing is more fundamental, in the life of an individual in this new order in which we suddenly discover that we have an abundance of leisure, than music, art, literature, dramatics, play, health education, industrial arts, home economics, and all other forms of creative arts. These are indeed the fundamental subjects in a culture deeply concerned in the development of the personality of its people. If this is a valid conclusion, the teacher of the new age will be required to secure far greater preparation in music, art, literature, and health, than has been expected of teachers in the past. The teachers college that does not have a vision of the development in these fields is losing its opportunity to make an early contribution to the new social order.

Another even more significant change has taken place. So important is it along with other changes that the historian of the twenty-fifth century will probably record the year 1933 as the end of an epoch and the beginning of a new era. We may expect in the years immediately ahead even greater cataclysmic changes than we have yet known. The teacher of the past has traditionally lived a cloistered life. His habits of life have all too frequently been somewhat monastic. He has been willing to seek seclusion behind sheltered walls and view life much as one enjoys a motion picture without ever participating as an actor in its drama.

Vicarious experiences have been accepted as substitutes for the hurly-burly activities of society. An attitude of mind on the part of the public has driven the teacher to pursue a sequestered life. In literature, on the stage, and in legislative halls he has been pictured as the impractical professor. *The teacher of the new age must be an active, aggressive, competent, and effective participant in society, possessing a fundamental knowledge of government, politics, economics, sociology, and social psychology.* This is the statement of my fourth proposition in the preparation of teachers for the new school.

Such an outcome may be difficult to achieve, for it means breaking with tradition. The teacher in the new deal must not be timid. Frequently he should be willing to walk where angels fear to tread. His voice should be heard in the land, but when he speaks let him speak as one having authority, for he should always be armed with the facts and with logic. He should participate in politics, not necessarily as a partisan of a political party but rather as the champion of great and fundamental issues. He must be willing even to sacrifice his position if the cause be just and the need for a leader be paramount. Sometimes he must leave the schoolroom and offer his leadership for public office. Society must recognize in the teacher of the new order an active participant rather than a professor viewing the panoramic picture of life passing before him.

The preparation for such leadership means a new emphasis on the study of social trends. We shall in the teachers college of the future study pos-

sibly not less history but more of contemporary civilizations and their problems. We shall not be as much interested in looking backward as we shall be in scanning the possibilities of the future. The teachers college should today be requiring of its students as a preparation for teaching in the new school a thoro acquaintance with government and politics, the elements of economics, sociology, and some knowledge of social psychology. The student should be so thoroly interested in these fields of study that he will continue to pursue them thru a lifetime. The teacher of the new age cannot properly direct the children and youth of the land without possessing a fundamental knowledge and an appreciation of the problems of the social trends of our civilization.

It is a fact revealed by a number of different investigations that the great majority of students who plan to enter teaching come from homes where their social background has been limited. What they lack in social graces may be compensated for in a measure by a ruggedness of character which they usually possess. Nevertheless, this deficiency in social training should be provided for in their education. Since it is the hope of our people that our nation shall advance to higher levels of culture, this development will be conditioned to a considerable degree by the culture and refinements possessed by the teachers of the nation's children. This leads me to a statement of my next proposition: *The teacher of the new order will place greater value on the virtues of politeness, courtesy, urbanity, gentleness of manners, social graces, and the refinements of life.*

The teachers college should surround its students with an environment charged with the amenities of life. As far as possible students should live on the campus. Every type of social program, both formal and informal, should be provided. The extracurriculum activities are no less important in a college of education than its curriculum activities.

My last proposition is: *The new age will demand that every teacher be professionally trained, skilled in the technic of teaching, possessing sufficient scholarship to have a philosophy of education and an appreciation of the meaning of professional ethics.*

Professional training is secured in the atmosphere of a professional school. Students living together on the same campus, thinking the same thoughts, reacting to the same stimuli are in the process of being professionally educated. While I would not go so far as to say that the subjectmatter of every course in a teachers college should be professionalized, I would agree that every instructor should have a dynamic professional attitude toward his work to the end that he might exemplify the finest characteristics of his profession.

The program for the preparation of teachers for the new school will emphasize participation in a laboratory school for the mastery of technic. Less and less academic or book instruction, will be given on methods of teaching. Prospective teachers will spend much time observing, analyzing, and participating in teaching under actual classroom conditions.

The amount of student or practise teaching will certainly have to be increased beyond the time allotted to student teaching in most teacher-train-

ing institutions today. The laboratory school will represent the most modern practises in education. Newer educational methods and ideals will shape its program. It will be sensitive to the procedures developed in the experimental and progressive schools of the nation. The laboratory school will, in fact, be a progressive school. Older patterns of teaching will be discarded for activity teaching. The training school will radiate the progressive theories and practises and it will be dominated by a philosophy that children learn to do by doing. In the laboratory school, teachers in training will see and hear and teach according to the most modern ways of instructing children. Students should be required to live and work in the laboratory school as the intern is required to stay in the hospital for much of his professional education.

Every person may be said to have a philosophy of life. Every teacher likewise has a philosophy of teaching, but in many cases it may not be very definite. For most teachers I suspect it is drifting with the current stream of thought. A meaningful philosophy can come only from much thinking and as a product of excellent scholarship. This leads us to return to our first proposition—that the teacher must be an educated individual. A constructive philosophy of education is an essential attribute of the successful teacher. An intelligent appreciation of the ethics of one's vocation is a by-product of professional preparation.

If the new age demands an education of its teachers somewhat comparable to that which I have just described, teaching will become truly a profession for all who are engaged in it. We shall then see the end of teacher transiency such as is shown today in statistics released by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers pointing out the fact that in the one- and two-teacher rural schools of this country two out of every five teachers are new to the schools each year. Entrants to the profession in the future will be selected from the fittest who apply for admission. We shall not educate for teaching more persons than society will employ. Equivalent qualification will be required of elementary and secondary teachers and no discrimination will be made in the salary schedules of these divisions of the school. Marriage of women will not and should not serve to bar them from the classroom or disqualify them for the profession for which they have prepared. I vision for the new age a new teacher, a new school, and a new civilization.

FORGOTTEN BUILDERS OF THE AMERICAN DREAM

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Forty years ago at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association held at the World's Fair in Chicago, Professor Fredrick J. Turner read a paper on *The Significance of the Frontier* which has revolutionized the study and writing of American history. Until Turner developed this thesis the historian generally described the growth of America as a westward movement into the wilderness of a relatively static social order. He made much of the conquest and exploitation of the natural resources, but hardly

noticed the impact of the frontier upon the settler. Turner's interpretation was a germinal idea, as fruitful in American history as Darwin's theory of evolution has been in biology. We may assert with some assurance that the three most important expressions of our American dream are to be found in the Declaration of Independence, Emerson's *American Scholar*, and Turner's *Significance of the Frontier in American History*. Professor Turner showed that the existence of "an area of free land, its continuous recession, and the advance of American settlement westward, explain American development." Instead of a projection of a ready-made civilization into a new and undeveloped area which was claimed from the Indian and converted into the conventional European community, he asserted that "American social development has been continually beginning over again on the frontier. This perennial rebirth, this fluidity of American life, this expansion westward with its new opportunities, its continuous touch with the simplicity of primitive society, furnish the forces dominating American character."

The American ideal of the independent citizen, free to live his own life unhampered by artificial barriers of government, economic privilege, and social stratification, did not burst full grown from the mind of some god-like American living on an intellectual New England Mount Olympus. The American dream was a slow growth which has been developed even now only in merest outline. Our European ancestors brought to America not their hopes and aspirations alone but their traditions and their spiritual inheritance. Here in a new environment utterly unlike that of the old world they began the conquest of a continent. Slowly but relentlessly the westward movement went on until in 1890 the director of the census reported that the last of the free land had been taken and the old days of pioneering had passed. This was the end of an era in American history.

On the edges of the slowly moving frontier where civilization was battling with savagery the main concepts of democracy had been slowly developing. The pioneer emphasized individualism, strong but selfish; nationalism, intense and local; freedom of political action almost to the point of anarchy; and he clung with unswerving faith to his belief in the fundamental equality of all men. This democratic faith developed on the frontier, nurtured in the middle border, and all but lost in the machine economy of an urban society has been the basis of a creed of equality of opportunity to inspire millions with high purpose and hope. For it they have lived, and sacrificed, and died. Its extreme results have sometimes been unlovely and disappointing. Undue emphasis upon individual success in a ruthlessly acquisitive society has at times nearly ruined us. We have had our periods of jingoism and we have shouted bombastically of our greatness. But by and large it has been a wholesome ideal, a faith worthy of any people, a dream which we devoutly pray may yet come true.

As the historians have explored the past, have re-created the passing scenes energized by the masterful figures of the human drama, and under the influence of Emerson and Turner have written the American epic, they have, it seems to me, become so occupied with the material conquests, with the growth

of industry and business and of political and economic conflict, that they have underestimated or neglected entirely the influence of the two institutions which preserve and protect the cultural and spiritual inheritance and stimulate the growth of the inner life, namely, the church and the school. Only indirectly do they refer to the teacher, and except for the missionaries, who are usually considered in the category of explorers, ministers, and priests are seldom mentioned. These pioneer builders have been too long forgotten, but some day we shall have a new American history which will set them in their proper places in the picture. They will not be in the foreground, it is true, but in the story of the westward movement the men and women who carried books and learning as the pioneer carried his ax will be a symbol of the development of America's greatest contribution to civilization—free, universal, state-supported schools.

Educational statesmen have found their place in history. The foundation work of Jefferson, Franklin, and Washington; the immortal paragraph in the Ordinance of 1787; the influence of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard; and in every state the leaders in the formation of the various state school systems have been more and more brought into the story of our national development. In my own state of Wisconsin we were busily occupied a few years ago debating as to whether Michael Frank actually was the founder of our school system. Certainly we cannot overestimate either the evangelical or the constructive work of these men. Our profession should honor them as the bar honors John Marshall or surgery repeats the story of its Murphys and its Mayos. This is not enough however. For all any system can do is to provide the means of bringing together pupil and teacher under the best possible conditions for effective learning. The teacher always has made the school. Administration may take the glory and the cash, but the credit belongs to the unadvertised, underpaid, overworked teacher who day by day in the classroom quietly, contentedly, and effectively leads his boys and girls thru the schoolroom routine.

I certainly don't want to be sentimental and maudlin about a host of teachers who did their work, enjoyed it, and stepped out into other fields, or remained thru life loyal teachers of American youth. There is no value in such an emotional excursion, but there is a story to tell which our histories of education—to be specific—and the general historians of America have left untold. It is the influence of the school and the school teacher upon our American life, the effect of an education of book learning upon generations whose environment was supplying the experiences, setting the tasks, and developing the problems which the modern school tries so uncertainly to solve with projects, laboratories, shops, and the like. Life was difficult on the frontier and the school, hard and harsh as it looks today, was a refining and alleviating influence in the relatively simple but difficult communities where our founding fathers lived, and worked, and died.

The most serious defect of histories of education, with one or two notable exceptions, is the selection of material to show by contrast with the modern school how bad, how unbelievably poor were these schools of the frontier.

Ichabod Cranes and Hoosier Schoolmasters are the literary contributions to our pedagogical hall of fame. Yet Nathan Hale was a schoolmaster and an inspiring one. How the autobiographies of some of our greatest men seem nostalgic with the memories of their school days! Whittier's schoolmaster in *Snowbound*, a composite portrait of the itinerant schoolmaster, Joshua Coffin, and the Dartmouth collegian, George Haskell, is a fair example of what the times could and did produce. We need, it seems to me, a reexamination of the old school and we need to judge it by what it did and not by what it might have been could we put a reverse gear on Time and move our modern educational system into the elemental life developing on the outposts of civilization.

The frontiersman had a difficult task to perform. He did not know that he was evolving a new intellectual attitude, a new social order, a dynamic democracy. He only knew that he must clear the wilderness, or break the prairie sod, that he must convert the area he had chosen for his home into a livable community for his family. He built log and sod houses, made corduroy roads with back-breaking work and with the crudest of tools. His agriculture was primitive—he worked and toiled until in middle age he seemed a broken old man. His wife worked even harder as she cooked, and spun, and wove, and served. Her lot was not easy. One cannot read the letters, papers, memoirs of any period without being convinced that for the children the woodsman and the plainsman planned and dreamed and worked. Into every little settlement came a minister or a priest. Crude meeting houses, but as good as the homes, were fashioned by tired hands for the gatherings where man could have God interpreted to him and where he could hear the old, old story of a better life. A frontier doctor composed the old gospel hymn "Sweet Bye and Bye" and another "The Little Brown Church in the Vale." You can't forget this phase of our emergent life if you read *Giants in the Earth*, *Death Comes for the Archbishop*, or any comparable novel with a setting in any state and in the time when the long thin line between civilization and wilderness was being given a second and third dimension.

Equally anxious was the settler that his children should have at least the beginnings of an education. His faith in the transforming power of the school was touched with mysticism. Perhaps he thought some miracle could be wrought. But his boy and his girl must learn to read, to write, and to do simple sums. The three R's to a man far away from the intellectual life may have seemed wildly ambitious. But he wanted a school, a local school, a school controlled by him,—not one handled for his community by a benevolent despotism from a central point far, far away. So he built a log or sod schoolhouse and to it his children went and in it they learned to read and write and cipher, and not a few were touched by a divine spark that set them afire for learning. That story is an old one repeated how many thousands of times upon this continent. May I illustrate.

Not far from where 300 years ago the intrepid Jean Nicollet first set foot upon the soil of the middlewest and near the oldest city of my state—Green Bay—there is the little village of New Franken, first settled by German

immigrants in 1845. They built crude log houses; they cleared the land of the huge maple forests; they erected a stone windmill to grind their wheat, a saw mill to cut lumber. They organized their little community of about twenty families into a social unit. One of the men wrote to a relative, "I am at present occupied with many special duties; I am postmaster, notary public, justice of the peace, farmer, and schoolmaster. Last fall the governor of Wisconsin appointed me with two other men to designate school localities in two counties and to appraise these school lands." They organized a school district as soon as possible after statehood and proposed to build a school-house but one John Schauer offered his log house for the purpose. At the school meeting with eighteen votes they resolved: (a) to purchase a stove; (b) to require the parents of children attending school to provide the school with stove wood; (c) to provide for lumber for desks and blackboards and for stove pipe to levy a tax of \$30 on the taxable property according to valuation; (d) that the teacher's salary be raised by a tax of four shillings for each eighty acres of land irrespective of its value.

There were many school meetings, but finally a teacher was employed for thirty-six dollars for a term of three months. Twenty-one children from seven to thirteen years attended and studied Webster's Spelling Book, Davies' Arithmetic, and Morse's Geography. The report of the school district at the end of the year showed \$118.28 assessed taxes; \$12.90½ delinquent, but a balance in the treasury of \$68. (At least as good a showing as our great cities make today.) One significant item is an allowance of \$1.25 to the treasurer for "two walks to Green Bay to receive school money." There is a story typical of the organization of the rural district. Before roads, before almost all else was the school and the dream of an educated people. It is hardly fair, it seems to me, to pick the school out of its primitive setting in the backwoods and laugh at it. Into it the pioneer built his hopes and out of it has come more, much more than we have recognized, but which our profession would do well to honor.

As the frontier moved westward the middle border with villages and cities united by systems of transportation and communication took its place and the school developed with it. The profession of teaching became more stabilized, curriculums expanded, better schoolhouses were built, state school systems were organized, and all education became, not more important, but more highly differentiated. Division of labor was unknown on the frontier but it was the essence of the new society and the school teacher and the school system were passing thru their adolescent period. Into better buildings went better teachers and they too influenced the future life of our nation, more perhaps than we can at present realize. Now and then a biography of some man who later achieved fame or notoriety calls attention to the personal influence of the teacher—a factor which in our machine age of standardized living and with an objective and scientific attitude in education we have been neglecting until the emergence of the guidance movement again stressed personality in the development of life.

Again may I illustrate, this time from the story of a not very savory character from the city of New York—the Tammany leader, Big Tim Sullivan. Let him tell it:

It was way back in 1873 and a boy named Sullivan was goin' to the Elm Street School where there was a Miss Murphy who was a teacher. The boy had an old pair of shoes, and one day she asked the boy to stay after school. He thought some other boy had done something and put it up to him and he was goin' to stand for it. He said, "Miss Murphy, if I've done anything let me know because I want to get away and sell papers," and she told the boy he hadn't done nothing, and she gave him an order for a pair of shoes. I needed them shoes then, and I thought if I ever got any money I would give shoes to people who needed them, and I'm going to buy shoes for people just as long as I live.

Later when he was state senator he was the only Democrat to vote for woman's suffrage and his reason was Miss Murphy who had once bought him a pair of shoes.

Such stories as this, too, could be repeated endlessly for our library shelves are loaded with biographies awaiting for some educational Turner to study them and show their significance in the building of our American dream.

When the frontier passed as a historical phenomenon and the middle border was maturing we saw the secondary school and the college repeating on a larger scale and with the advantages of increased wealth and technical knowledge the story of the elementary school of the frontier. America has become a nation of schools and in them has found its most effective conserving and integrating force. Today we have reached the point in our history where the school system is being revalued and at many points mercilessly criticized. The platforms of educational conventions are often the sounding boards from which our differing opinions are sent out over the nation carrying suggestions of uncertainty, discord, and conflict. In the expansive days of the nineteen-twenties this was a wise procedure, but in these days when we are on the defensive perhaps we need to point out our agreements, our conquests, and our hopes. Without any feeling of self-satisfaction our profession, it seems to me, owes it to the nation which is in large part a product of the schools, to assume once more a positive and constructive attitude.

If we could by some miraculous power move America back to 1890 when the old frontier reached its last outpost we might possibly utilize the experience of forty years to make this a better and a more useful society. But chastened as we now are we can reexamine our social order and our schools and plan for a better day. We have a new frontier to develop in which the creed of self-reliance, of intellectual equality, of individual initiative and responsibility are not enough. There is a new world in the making—and the schools will have their part in the planning and building as they have in the past. With all of its faults our American system of government is perhaps the best that has yet been developed. Unchecked individualism with its materialism, its waste, its loose business ethics, and its huge concentration of wealth and power has brought some results which make us distrustful of democracy in practise. But I think in the light of our present knowledge and with the powerful influence of the school we can so order it that the ideals

which have been developed as civilization moved to the west can yet be made the most useful and hopeful method of social control. We must, however, preserve the historic American attitude toward the individual, his opportunity, responsibility, and his potential power. I suppose our feeling for this is at bottom the justification for such movements as that which naively calls itself progressive education. Creativeness, freedom, respect for personality are the educational bases of the democratic ideal and they have developed as America has developed. But in the new order which is building, a new attitude toward the individual's place and function in society is certain to develop.

Things have been happening on the frontiers of education which those working in the established system which we call our educational ladder are perhaps apt to underestimate. A tremendous force outside of formal schooling is modifying the results of the school. The newspaper, cinema, radio, automobile, to mention only the most obvious, have educational influences both positive and negative which so far as any conscious understanding is concerned are largely uncontrolled except as economic forces direct them. But in the field of formal education there has developed a whole new system of part-time education, which brings the school back into the lives of boys and girls employed in industry. This group of young people are salvaged for society, many are re-educated into new trades and methods of earning a living. Adult education is only beginning and it, too, has to fight for existence against forces which do not or cannot understand that education is a life-long process in which formal schooling is only a beginning. Libraries, Four-H Clubs, and the like make their contribution. Truly the American dream of education for all has expanded and developed beyond the hopes or even the imagination of Jefferson and Horace Mann. And if we are wise enough to see the social revolution that the schools have already produced, and if we seize the opportunity offered in cohesive professional organizations which reflect the mass thinking of the teachers of America we shall indeed have a rebirth of that dynamic democracy which, coupled with social vision, will remake our society.

Certainly the achievements of the schools in America since 1890 when the old era closed have been little short of miracles. The scientific movement, expanded and enriched curriculums, new procedures and methods, the testing movement, the expansion of the school into undreamed-of fields, magnificent school buildings, modernized supervision and administration have come upon us with a rapidity paralleling the social changes produced by our technological advances. We may be uncertain as to our destination, our educational philosophy may be immature and theoretical, our school organization may be too imitative of centralized business practise, but we have developed a tradition of free universal education as the center of our democratic society. In America we have as our principal integrating agency the common school, the common denominator of our civilization. We adhere to the concept of mass education and accept the statement of Jane Addams: "It is better to raise the many ever so little than the few ever so high." Our group—the

common school teachers—have potential power unequalled in the history of the world if we use it rightly, and exercise a leadership based upon inner control without external compulsion.

But let us not forget the past. Out of the frontier came the dream that sees beyond the years. The old school was a teacher-centered school in the best sense. Alice Freeman Palmer could write from the city of Saginaw on the edge of the pine woods to her future husband: "While I teach them solid knowledge, and give them school drill as faithfully as I may, I will give, too, all that the years have brought to my soul. God help me to give what He gave—myself—and make that self worth something to somebody; teach me to love as He has loved, for the sake of the infinite possibilities locked up in every human soul." That attitude we still need to recognize for most of us are changed most by the great people we meet and the books that we read.

Books, too, had a place in the holy of holies of the old school days. They were few but they made life-long impressions. They were read and reread, and they built themselves into the hearts of those who hungered for food for their souls. McGuffey made the classics familiar to millions. How can one teach who doesn't love books, who does not thirst for literature as the hart panteth after the water brooks?

Teachers, books, and above all the Book. For religion was central on the edge of the world. Crude, energetic, and in some of its extreme forms, as the camp meeting, it was an emotional orgy. But at bottom in the silent places there was much walking and talking with God.

So from the past we can carry into the future a love for books as guides into the kingdom of the mind; religion as the energizer and director of those inner forces which generate our dreams, our visions, our aspirations, and our ideals; and personality as evidenced by the powerful forces which great teachers have unloosed. No school can be great without them, no nation be worthy of its heritage which forgets them. And because of them we have the democratic ideal—the daring experimental ideal; the failures, the glorious failures of men reaching for the stars. The American dream was made possible because of teachers, unknown or famous, perhaps those casual teachers who later became our statesmen, authors, and generals; teachers who in crude surroundings taught themselves with their books and who in a simpler age unlocked the doors into the empire of the spirit. We could to our profit set them in the temples of our memory and let their influence guide us in the new era and the new world in the making.

COOPERATION FOR HEALTH BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL

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Perhaps you will pardon me for reverting to the elementary and calling your attention to the fact that cooperation means working together. The term itself excludes consideration of any project or scheme by which all

the responsibility and all work of maintaining or advancing the health of our children is thrown upon either the home or the school without sharing the burden with the other.

Fundamental to the consideration of this topic is a realization that the school is the extension of the home. When there were no public schools those who could not afford to hire tutors for their children and thus educate them in the home, were forced to go without education. The public school is a device whereby the home may delegate certain of its responsibilities, usually those of a more complex nature, to persons specially trained for the discharge of such function and working in an organization and atmosphere which is supposed to be conducive to the more efficient discharge of these special functions. In considering how far the school ought to go in relieving the home of responsibility, we must recognize at the outset that there are two fundamentally divergent philosophies, not of education alone but of community organization. Depending upon which of these philosophies you embrace, you will either agree with what I am about to say, or you will disagree. In either case, as educators, you will recognize the desirability of a frank statement by your speaker of what he considers a desirable situation with respect to cooperation for health between the home and the school.

First, let us visualize the home in its relation to the community. It is popular today to speak in terms of a century of progress. A cynical observer is credited with the remark that all motion is not necessarily progressive in the sense that we generally use the word "progress" to connote movement toward a better state of affairs. There has been a very definite change in the position of the home in the community in the last hundred years. One by one, its functions have been taken over by agencies which many persons consider able to carry them out better than they could be carried out in the home. Mills have replaced the home spinning wheel; bakeries have taken the place of the family oven and thus carried us forward at the same time to the twentieth century and back to primitive times when community ovens were the rule; sewing at home has been unable to compete with the specialty shop. Home millinery has succumbed to the \$1.88 emporium for most of us and the more expensive establishment for the privileged few. The cutting of firewood, except as a vacation necessity or a suburban affectation, has been superseded by the ordering of fuel from the community dealer.

The community has changed, as well as the home. Primitive methods of communication have been replaced by the telephone, the telegraph, the cable, and the radio. The technic of news-gathering and dissemination has advanced almost unbelievably. Medical science and its allies in the scientific world have taken greater strides in the last hundred years than in all the previous centuries of recorded history. The riding horse and the stage-coach have given way to the motor car, the speeding passenger train, and the air-craft. Entertainment in the home, typified by the magic lantern of our childhood, has been replaced by the swifter tempo of talking pictures and radio crooners. All in all, the setting in which the home finds itself has undergone revolutionary changes.

There is no use to sigh for the "good old days," because we are not going backward and there were enough disadvantages in the old ways, so that whatever may be the shortcomings of the new, we would scarcely wish to turn back the pages of the calendar a hundred years. At the same time there are elements in the trend of our civilization which ought to cause us to pause and to look, if not with alarm at least with careful attention to see whither we are going.

Perhaps the keynote of our situation today is interdependence. Almost everything from the food we eat, the light by which we read, the energy which moves our motor cars, our refrigerators, and our trains, the news of world events, all medical service, hospitalization and the preservation of our health depends upon someone else. No individual today can be self-sufficient without becoming a hermit. We no longer produce by labor of our hands the commodities and the services which we desire. Instead we earn or otherwise procure a more or less sufficient supply of a medium of exchange and then proceed to try to make it meet our wants. At present the net outcome of a century of scientific and industrial progress seems to be a collection of problems such as man has never faced before. Among these problems is the relationship of the home to the community and as a part of this relationship the cooperation of the home and the school for the better health of the child.

The home as an institution must be conceived primarily as a device of civilization for the protection, rearing, and education of children. The school is an extension of the home and must have the same ideals and purposes. As soon as either the home or the school begins to live selfishly, the former for the parents and the latter for the teachers, failure of each is inevitable. It is to the credit of our civilization that regardless of multiplying responsibilities and perplexities, regardless of economic chaos, financial bewilderment, inability to find honest labor or to collect for services honestly rendered, many homes and schools have stood fast and held to their ideals with such uniform constancy that the exceptions still are notably conspicuous.

We are faced today with the need for retrenchment in all our activities. We must scrutinize all expenditures and ask ourselves, not once but repeatedly, if they are necessary and useful before we venture to authorize them. There can be no escaping the need for economy, but economy does not mean penuriousness. It means, as I shall use it, wise spending. Putting aside all prejudices and preconceived ideas, we must scan the school health service with a critical eye—and I use the word critical in its original connotation and not in the commonly accepted sense. Public usage has corrupted the word to denote an antagonistic attitude but I do not use it in that way. To criticize, if I read the dictionaries aright, means to examine with care and to pronounce a just opinion.

School health service consists of two principal factors, health education and health service. It is the duty of educators to train children for a complete, useful, and happy life and that means invariably a healthy life, though I recognize that health is but one of the essentials for complete living and that it is not in any sense of the word an end in itself. Health education is

necessary because knowledge in medical and allied sciences has gone ahead much faster than the public has been able to keep pace with it. In consequence we have the spectacle of life-saving knowledge not disseminated to all the people in spite of the efforts of the medical profession, public health and school agencies to keep the public at least measurably informed about progress in modern medical science. As the late President Coolidge pointed out, in his address to the American Medical Association in 1927, "We do not do as well as we know." Perhaps the principal reason for that is that so many of us do not know.

Health service for disease prevention and improvement of the health of the school child, as distinguished from education, presents a problem of which the solution is not simple. The home has relinquished many of its former functions to the school and in some instances schools have usurped the place of the home. Perhaps the function which it has relinquished most completely is that of training the child and yet the child cannot be trained by the school alone because the home controls the entire sleeping program of the child; largely determines his diet, recreation, and rest outside of actual sleeping hours; furnishes the environmental background against which he lives, and above all surrounds him with the influence and example of parental attitudes which are stronger than any program of didactic instruction can ever be.

This home, as we visualize it, is bombarded by new and strange influences, leaving the parents many times bewildered and groping for guidance. Restricting our comment to the field of health alone, we can observe that the home is subjected to what passes for health instruction from a number of different sources, many of them assiduously purveying misinformation because of warped judgment or downright rascality. We observe the home getting dependable health information from doctors and dentists, from public health departments, voluntary health agencies, and reputable medical writers. Commercial organizations also attempt to educate the public according to their particular interests thru the various advertising media, such as billboards, direct mail, zeppelins trailing pennants, or any other device which a skilled ballyhoo artist may conceive and which commercial interests with advertising appropriations grown faster than their civic consciousness, may choose to sponsor. The parent, naturally enough, is bewildered, and his or her reaction depends upon individual personal characteristics. There will be some who will cynically disregard all health advice; others who shuttle back and forth between this and that viewpoint in their confusion; some will pick what they want to believe, and still others in disgust at the babel of tongues will resign themselves to taking matters as they come, thinking that after all they could fare no worse by taking a chance than by attempting to chart a course in the treacherous rapids, shoals, eddies, and rocks which now surround the safe harbor of good health. It should be sufficiently obvious that there can be no success in health education without cooperation between the school and the home.

The health service as it exists in the schools—and again I call your attention to my purpose to speak with utmost frankness—is susceptible of much

improvement. Without going into detail, I wish to call your attention to certain types of health service which all of you know exist. Quite likely each of the descriptions I am about to give you will call to your mind a definite school system where such a condition prevails.

The first type of school is the one in which there is no health service of any kind. There may be a pretense at health education, consisting principally of reading a required textbook and requiring recitations about factual material. This is not health education in the true sense of the word because it does not adopt modern principles of education, by which, as I understand them, teaching is now conceived as the creation of situations and the demonstration thru them of proper solutions for problems. A school system cannot teach health without demonstrating health practises.

A little further up the scale we find a system where efforts are made to teach health thru the creation of situations which call for solutions. Coupled with these will be a certain amount of demonstration activity and possibly as part of it a health examination of the school children. It is when we come to the health examination that we find weaknesses most prevalent because what is commonly known as a school health examination is very frequently not a health examination at all. Not long ago I had an inquiry about the examination of children in school. The inquirer wished to know whether a complete and adequate physical examination could be made and recorded in three minutes! This question could not have been asked if pretended health examinations were not being made and recorded at a rate of three minutes each. I happen to know that they are being so made and recorded in a number of school systems, large and small. Such an examination is neither good public health procedure nor good economy, and certainly such a group as this will characterize it as poor educational technic. Abolition of such so-called examinations cannot be accomplished too quickly.

Next we have a school system doing a good job of education in health and linking it up with an excellent health examination for demonstration purposes. Such schools are not nearly as common as they ought to be. They are meeting in full their obligation to point out the availability of medical knowledge and means of using it for better health thru the wise application of modern educational principles. They should be commended, emulated, and multiplied.

It is when health education reaches this standard of excellence that it begins to meet new dangers, namely the danger of superseding and thus undermining the responsibility of the home for the health of the child. As a result of high-grade programs of health education and health examination, there has developed a consciousness of physical defects and bad health habits and a natural and entirely laudable desire to do something about it. Then follows the establishment of clinics for dental service, of provisions to furnish eye glasses to children with defective vision, and to procure the removal of tonsils and other corrective work as the need arises. It is interesting to note that one does not commonly hear of artificial limbs being purchased for school children, nor has the furnishing of hearing devices become a regular

practise. Yet these are but logical steps from the filling of teeth, the purchase of glasses, and the underwriting of defect correction of various other types. The school must function as an educational agency; it cannot in my judgment also be a charitable agency and a practitioner of medicine unless it proposes ultimately, as was suggested at a recent conference, also to furnish free legal advice and investment service for the families from which it draws its children. The school must define the limitations of health education and must definitely limit itself in the furnishing of health service only to that which is furnished as an educational necessity. If limitations are not clearly recognized, sharply defined, and scrupulously respected, the school will spread itself out so thin that it cannot do justice either to these extraneous functions or the ones for which it is properly responsible. More important, it will injure the self-reliance of those whose preparation for efficient living is its primary responsibility.

We hear much from educators about teaching, not by what Turner recently referred to as "intra-cerebral injection of facts," but by creating situations and problems to which the proper solution must be found and in the finding, education acquired incidentally, unconsciously, and therefore without much pain. When the schools create a situation in which everything is done for the health of the individual and no call is made upon him to use his own resources, they are not educating him; they are merely leading him around by the hand. They are making of him a citizen who cannot exist except under a paternalistic government.

It is a grave question in my mind whether we are justified in spending money for school physical examinations, so-called, until we have a more definite idea of what a school physical or health examination ought to be. I observe from the reports of the White House Conference that the cost of school physical examination ranges from something less than 75 cents to almost \$4 per child. It is a recognized fact that the school physical examination can do nothing more than point the way and that in the last analysis we must go back to the family doctor for a complete picture of that child's health, not a still picture at one moment, but the unfolding sequence of the child's development. This can be observed only by the doctor who sees the patient repeatedly from birth up thru infancy, preschool years, and so into adult life. I do not believe that the community ought to furnish a health examination for a child more than once, except in instances where families, for economic reasons, cannot make the provision.

A health examination should be a school entrance requirement and an annual examination should be required for re-admission to successive grades as a condition of promotion. The community may properly furnish these examinations to those who cannot afford the service themselves and in the discharge of its educational obligation may properly demonstrate the examination to those who have not sent their children to school with a record of an examination acceptable to the school authorities. To such demonstrations parents should be invited. If they do not choose to come, unless they have excellent reason for not coming, they should have no further claim upon

the examination service of the school and the money which would otherwise be expended upon them should be devoted to other purposes.

In short, I propose that the school shall teach health and in that teaching shall demonstrate, insofar as may be necessary, the principles which it propounds. I propose further that where economic inability makes the parents unable to respond to the requirement for a health examination the community may properly furnish it, tho not necessarily or even preferably thru the school. Where parents fail to interest themselves the examination need not be repeated, while at the same time the school should continue its educational efforts with respect to such parents thru the school nurses, thru bulletins or literature, thru parent-teacher organizations, visiting teachers, parent-education departments, or other extension provisions. The school, obviously, can never abandon its educational obligations but there is no reason why it should go on indefinitely rendering medical service to those who possess the means and presumably the intelligence to provide their own. I know that to provide medical service is just as logical as to provide clothing and I know that the schools are providing clothing. I do not think that they ought to provide clothing. I do not believe that the schools need to shoulder the whole responsibility for community social service. Of course, they must cooperate with social agencies.

Let us remember that the school controls the child and can control the child only during a fraction of that child's life. The school cannot overcome adverse influences in the home thru the child alone. It must enlist the cooperation of the home. There is no better way to enlist cooperation than to share responsibility. Every member of an organization knows that the way to wake up the lazy members is to put them on committees. Unless you put every home on your community health committee you are going to have the kind of a committee that is all too common, namely where one fellow, the school, is doing all the work and the others are reaping the benefits without effort. Persons who get something for nothing usually appreciate what they get at precisely what they pay for it.

The committee has been facetiously described as an American substitute for intelligence. Whether it is that or not, it is certainly coming to be a substitute for individual initiative. Communities are getting to be much like committees, where none of the members do any work except the chairman—namely, the government. In my experience as a health officer I have seen the spectacle of persons who had purchased or otherwise acquired dogs for pets, demand that the health department assume the care of the dogs at public expense when they became ill. I have seen police departments criticized following an automobile accident involving two reckless drivers because there was no policeman on the corner. I have seen a city sued for an accident to a small child whose parents had permitted it to wander many blocks from home unsupervised. These are evidences of a popular spirit which has been encouraged by increasing tendencies toward paternalism in government. To all intents and purposes the American citizen in another genera-

tion or two will require a personal guardian unless we teach him to accept and discharge his own responsibilities.

I have said little about costs. I am not going to say more. It is not a question of cost; it is a question of principle. If the American people are convinced that something is worthwhile they will probably have it and will undoubtedly find a way to pay for it. If a policy is bad for the American people they ought not to have it, whether or not they can afford the cost.

Health education is merely a part of education as a whole. As I understand the modern educator's definition, education is preparation for living a complete and satisfactory life. A complete and satisfactory life includes freedom to exercise individual judgment and presupposes the existence of judgment to exercise. Eternal guarding and leading children by the hand does not encourage or further their development, according to leading educators. If we are going to have citizens in the coming generation who can lead us further on the trail of progress in the next century than past generations have in the century behind us, we must develop self-reliance. The only way in which self-reliance can be developed with respect to the public health is by cooperation among the community agencies for health, which I propose now to name for you in what I regard as the order of their importance:

1. The home, because it controls the ultimate application of hygienic measures to the family group
2. The doctor, the dentist, and other allied scientific groups, because thru research and clinical observation they develop the knowledge on which all health education must be based
3. The schools, because they are the most important channel for disseminating facts and establishing health practises among children
4. The public health agencies, official and volunteer, because they are accessory to the schools as educational influences, especially among adults
5. Reputable medical writers contributing to lay publications.

Unless these groups just named cooperate, we shall continue to contemplate in the American scene a lush field for exploitation by the unscrupulous commercial advertiser, the uninformed or sensational free lance writer, the scatter-brain faddist, and the wily quack.

THE PUBLIC AND ITS SCHOOLS

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When Horace Mann abandoned the law profession to accept the leadership of public education in Massachusetts in 1837 he made the following declaration:

God grant me an annihilation of selfishness, a mind of wisdom, a heart of benevolence. How many men I shall meet who are accessible only thru a single motive, or who are incased in prejudice and jealousy, and need not to be subdued but to be remodeled! How many who will vociferate their devotion to the public, but whose thoughts will be intent on themselves! There is but one spirit in which these impediments can be met with success: it is the spirit of self-abandonment,

the spirit of martyrdom. I must be a fluid sort of man, adapting myself to tastes, opinions, habits, manners, so far as this can be done without hypocrisy or insincerity, or compromise of principle. In all this there must be a higher object than to win personal esteem, or favor, or worldly applause. I have faith in the improvability of the race,—in their accelerating improvability. If we can get this vast wheel into any perceptible motion, we shall have accomplished much. I have abandoned jurisprudence, and betaken myself to the larger sphere of mind and morals. Having found the present generation composed of materials almost unmal-leable, I am about transferring my efforts to the next. Strength expended upon the latter may be effectual which would make no impression upon the former. Let the next generation be my client.

In that early day movements had already started in various parts of our country for a system of education at public expense and in the course of events Horace Mann was called to the leadership of this greater movement. He possessed those qualities of unselfishness and devotion which have motivated the workers in public education thruout the history of the public-school system. The same spirit of self-sacrifice and effort which led Horace Mann to give his life to the welfare of the children of his time is still a characteristic of those who carry on the work of the public schools. The teachers of the nation are today advocates and guardians for the children and these children are still our clients. The torch which Mann lighted and carried among the people of his generation has been handed from leader to leader and today is borne aloft by thousands of men and women who have consecrated their lives to the training and the education of children. There are still those who are "incased in prejudice and jealousy" and the educational leaders of today are faced with the same sort of opposition and criticism which met the leaders of the public-school movement in the days of Horace Mann.

In discussing the present situation I shall first consider the criticism which is quite prevalent concerning the present educational leadership in this country. We read in some magazines and newspapers and we hear from some platforms statements that there has been a deterioration in the quality and preparation of those who direct the public-school systems of this country. Criticism of our leadership shows rather interesting contradictions. We have those who claim that high-powered educationalists have over-developed the school systems of our country and we have others who charge that the work of our educationalists is largely mechanical and lacking in breadth of vision and scholarship. I think it is fair that we should face these criticisms and take a square look at the professional leadership of the public schools. Philosophically and theoretically may I say that criticism emanating from colleges and universities ought to be ruled out in view of the fact that our modern educational philosophy has been evolved from those institutions. Such weaknesses as may be found in the public schools of our country can be charged to our educational philosophers just as much as to those who carry on these educational activities. I claim that the most important factor in the present emergency as it affects the public schools is the modern teaching profession. We have in this country today thousands of men and women who in preparation, scholarship, and professional knowledge are the peers of men and women in any of the learned professions. Our critics may apply any

sort of yardstick they choose and they will find just as high an average of academic attainments and professional preparation in our educational leadership as they will find in any other profession. If there is any doubt about this I refer them to the records in the graduate schools of the colleges and universities, and in the teacher-training institutions. There are still differences of opinion about the sort of educational preparation our leadership should have but surely no one would charge that the courses of training for educational leadership are any less definite or more chaotic than those provided in the preparation for the other learned professions. In discussing this matter I demand that our critics be fair and that they consider the leadership in education upon the same basis as the leadership in all other forms of vocational and specialized activity. I assert that such an impartial survey of all the learned professions will show that the profession of education will not suffer in comparison.

We are also told that there has been a slump in the leadership of the organized educational forces of the country. Here judgment must be based upon the achievements and the results of our educational organizations. The National Education Association has a long and honorable record. I pay high tribute to those who have carried on the work of this association in the years past. They rendered a fine service, and on the part of the present leadership I express deep appreciation of the services which the leaders of the past have rendered to the cause of public education. I assert, however, with equal confidence that the National Education Association in the past two or three years has adjusted itself and its activities in a fine way to the demands of the new age. Under the present management and that of the immediate past thru the modern facilities of the radio, the cause of education has been presented to millions instead of to thousands as in the past. The leadership in this organization has been alert in taking advantage of every modern facility for bringing support to the public schools of this country. The activities of its headquarters staff, its publications, and its contributions have been abreast of the times. The power and the influence of an organization like the National Education Association in this modern day are felt not thru any one person but in a combination of many working in a united effort for the achievement of great purposes. Measured in this way every member of the National Education Association may well be proud of its achievements. May I divert to pay tribute to the great state associations that have rendered such distinct service in this emergency. In every legislative center and on every firing line the representatives of the state associations have been present. The national association and the state associations in all the states of the union have cooperated wholeheartedly in the past year and the results speak for themselves.

The real educational leadership in public education in this country is found in the state departments of education, in the offices of city superintendents and high-school principals, and in the state and national associations which bring together classroom teachers for the advancement of their profession and the protection of the welfare of our children. This country

has witnessed no finer exhibition of patriotism and loyalty than that of the teaching profession in the past two or three years. In the face of reaction and retrenchment and in the presence of mean and unjust criticism these men and women have carried on. May we remind our critics that it would be well for them to look to their own houses and compare their own leadership in academic attainments and professional equipment with the great body of men and women who are carrying on the work of public education.

The critics of the public schools are finding fault with educational results. We are told that public education has resulted in a sort of dead level of mediocrity among the people. We are not told what might have been our condition without such training. I do not claim any degree of perfection for the American public schools. Its critics cannot reasonably expect it to be free from the weaknesses of modern society. It is our hope as educational leaders that public education might prepare the rising generation for better things. Those of us who base our educational philosophy upon the teaching of Horace Mann know that "an inconceivably great labor is undertaken. With the highest degree of prosperity, results will manifest themselves but slowly. The harvest is far distant from the seed-time." This is no time to indulge in extravagant claims about the function of education. We simply hold to the principle that we cannot have a modern society without a certain minimum knowledge and intelligence. This must be universal among the people. Any other condition would mean the complete change of our governmental and social structure. Much of the criticism of educational results in the public schools is due to the feeling that the masses of our people cannot profit from educational training. These critics regard the common people as boobs and yokels. It is an easy matter to assume the attitude of an intellectual snob and to look down on the masses. It is quite difficult, however, to get those masses to look up to those who assume airs of superiority. In my judgment it is a little hazardous to decide that the intelligence and human qualities desirable for success in modern life reside exclusively with any one group. Magazine writers and sensational platform speakers may be intellectually smart and clever but there are a lot of common people who have learned in the public schools to discriminate between bunk and truth. The hope of this country is that an ever increasing number may learn to make that discrimination. We have struggled for a long time in this country to eliminate illiteracy and to teach all of our people to read and write. We are approaching a one hundred percent record in that effort. Our next goal will be to remove other forms of illiteracy. To the public schools of this country can surely be given the credit of achieving the first result and to them we must look with hope for higher results. The public school may have many of the imperfections which its critics have claimed but the fact remains that it is the only instrument we have for developing a citizenship that is universally prepared to deal intelligently with the complexities of modern life. We therefore suggest that those who criticize the results of public education propose a better means of qualifying people to live in a democracy.

We are told by another group of critics that public education is costing too much money. Here we are brought face to face with the obligation of parents for the education of their children. If this type of critic believes in modern democracy he must accept the obligation for the training of citizens in that democracy. In the course of time the modern public school has become a cooperative effort among the parents for providing desired educational training. Of course, we have those who are financially situated so that they can provide for the education of their children in a highly efficient manner thru private enterprise, but the community and the state very soon confront that larger group who cannot provide such educational training without general cooperative effort. Since the days of Horace Mann we have in this country established first the principle that an elementary education should be provided at public expense to all the children of all the people, and rather reluctantly in a more recent period the providing of secondary education at public cost has been generally accepted altho in this emergency there have been reactionary voices crying for a curtailment of public secondary education. We still have with us those who are opposed to any general expenditure for free public higher education. The basic principle underlying this whole problem is found in the obligation of parents to children, of age to youth, of one generation to the succeeding generation. May I enunciate the principle which I have stated repeatedly this year that in a democracy the education of the children constitutes a first mortgage on the wealth of the community and the state.

We are confronted now in this period of depression which we hope is near the end, with those critics who claim that this nation cannot afford to provide free public education to its childhood and youth. The educational leadership of this country in the presence of this situation recognizes the fact that expenditures must be adjusted to the ability of the community and the state to pay. We do claim that the education of children is an essential service and that in the adjustment of public expenditures funds for education should have a priority of consideration. May I submit some facts concerning the spending habits of the people of this country, when they want to satisfy their own personal needs for display or amusement.

Official estimates of the United States Office of Education place expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools for the school year just concluded at approximately \$1,900,000,000. This estimate was made last December and many additional reductions have been made in school expenditures. It is safe to say that our total bill for public schools in America in 1932-33 was well under two billion dollars.

At the same time, our annual expenditures for gasoline were approximately \$1,982,000,000. We spent as much to propel our automobiles as we did to educate our children.

Expenditures for cigars, cigarettes, and other forms of manufactured tobacco have fallen off greatly during the depression; nevertheless, even last year we were able to find \$1,212,000,000 for tobacco products. The com-

bined public-school systems of 38 out of the 48 states were operated for less than the amount spent by the United States for tobacco.

The annual income of a single chewing-gum company in 1930 was larger than the income for public schools in any one of 26 states.

Our expenditures for admissions to moving pictures, theaters, prize-fights, cabarets, and the like, amounted to \$1,240,000,000. The nation that will close kindergarten and night schools while it continues to spend these huge sums on amusements, often of doubtful value, is pursuing a dangerous policy. As long as the combined expenditures for tobacco and amusements are 50 percent greater than the combined expenditures for all public elementary and secondary schools, we shall be unable to take seriously the statement that we can no longer afford to give our children a decent education.

These contrasts between expenditures for education and for other purposes are even more striking when we consider conditions in a fairly normal year. Thus, in 1928, we spent \$2.60 for candy, chewing gum, theater, tobacco, jewelry, and similar luxuries, for every dollar spent for schools. Even as late as 1930, we were spending fifty percent more for life insurance premiums than we were for public schools, over twice as much for building construction as we were for public schools, and about five times as much for passenger automobiles as for public schools. In making these comparisons, there is no thought of depreciating the importance of expenditures for life insurance, for buildings, for transportation, or for luxuries. It is granted that factories built for the production of automobiles or cigars cannot be converted over night into schoolhouses. It can hardly be denied, however, that there is a large element of choice in the way in which we distribute the national income. Scarcely a state in the country could not maintain its expenditures for education provided its people were willing to forgo the purchase of other goods and commodities. Once the proper support of public education is recognized as a matter of first concern, the schools can be adequately supported even tho we may not have as much as we like of material luxuries and comforts. A wise national policy will find ways and means by which the economic support given to various commodities and services will bear a close relationship to the relative human values of these commodities and services.

Most of the curtailments in public education have necessarily fallen on the salaries of teachers and other employees. Teachers do not object to reasonable reductions in salaries when it is evident that the community under present conditions is unable to maintain the former schedules, but teachers and many other citizens are beginning to wonder why it is that the lower salaried groups always seem to feel the heaviest brunt of a period of depression. The salaries of the presidents of twelve large railway systems, for instance, run from \$61,000 up to \$135,000. The average reduction in these large salaries between 1929 and 1932 was only 10 percent. The five largest life-insurance companies pay their presidents salaries ranging from \$100,000 to \$200,000. Four out of the five companies increased the salaries of their presidents by \$25,000 between 1929 and 1932. It is reported that the presi-

dent of a large tobacco company was receiving in 1932 remuneration from salary and bonus amounting to nearly \$800,000 a year, while in 1930 the same official received over a million dollars a year in salary and bonus. While the railroad and insurance companies were paying salaries of this type to their leading officers, the federal government was loaning them large sums of money thru the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. At the same time, thousands of school teachers whose salaries in normal years were not excessive, were going without pay entirely and were unable to secure from Congress any legislation which would permit the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to loan money for their relief.

It is conditions such as these which lead us to suspect the motives of those who are taking the leading part in the national drive against the financial support of public schools. It is no longer popular, as it was a century ago, to oppose the support of public education as a matter of principle. The American people have accepted the public-school system and will not turn from it. Can it be possible that those who do not at heart believe in a democratic system of education but who dare not openly announce their opposition to it are using our present sufferings as a method by which they hope to weaken or destroy it?

We need in this country today a new conception of human values. There must be a radical change in our estimates of success. Democratic ideals of the greatest good to the greatest number must be made a reality. We have too long preached the principles of equality and justice while practising injustice. The badge of dishonor should be pinned on the man who achieves selfish purposes by unfair treatment of his fellows. The American public-school system represents the effort of a great modern democracy to establish equality of opportunity among all of the people. In this land of ours the sons of the struggling farmer, the wage earner, and the small salaried person must have the same opportunity for the development of their intellectual talents as do the sons of the privileged classes. This is of the essence of democracy. Social, political, and economic leadership in the new period ahead of us must be based upon ability and character. Ralph Waldo Emerson once made the statement that the greatest human enterprise is the care and the culture of men. May I say that the greatest need of this country today is for men who are honest and fair in their dealings with their fellow men and who are true and loyal to the ideals and principles of modern democracy. From the days of Horace Mann down to the present moment the American public school has been dedicated to the greatest of human enterprises. In the face of unfair criticism and selfish opposition one million teachers in this country carry on with supreme devotion to American ideals and modern conceptions of human success. These teachers call upon the representatives of wealth to join with them in the care and the culture of the rising generation. American institutions cannot be preserved and perpetuated by educating the children of a few. They can only be made permanent thru the broadcast education of all the children of all the people. The debt which age owes to youth for culture and education must not be defaulted.

SOME RECENT LEGAL TRENDS

CLARENCE MARTIN, PRESIDENT, AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION, MARTINSBURG, W. VA.

Certainly the opportunity is propitious to tell you how deeply indebted the people of this country—aye, of the world—are to the teaching profession. The American Bar Association, which I have the honor temporarily to represent, numbers in the legal branch of the teaching world, many of its outstanding figures. Each of them adds presence, prestige, learning, and, generally, conservatism to its work.

Doctor Rosier told me that the slogan of this meeting was to evaluate education. Presumably, then, you are determining the worth of applied education. And this brings me directly to the subject of this discourse, for law, in its scientific sense, is the reflection of society, at any given time, and depends upon the breadth of thinking the lawgiver possesses at the moment of the formulation of any given precept. Or, as the lawyer aptly puts it: the history of a people is a history of their law. What will historians say of the present legal trends when they are weighed in the scales of retrospection?

May I discuss with you a subject kindred in its nature to that with which the teaching profession is faced in every state in the country—that of the standard of education required for admission to the bar?

When Abraham Lincoln, regarded as our outstanding example of equal opportunity, was a member of the Illinois legislature, to the surprise of many of his colleagues, he championed the passage of a statute which required an examination to ascertain the fitness of those who aspired to teach in the common schools of the state. That problem, then existent, has been solved to a greater or less extent, to the satisfaction of the teachers of America.

The legal profession has had a similar problem, the solution of which has not been so easy. There seems ingrained in the non-legal mind the thought that every young man, if he so resolves, irrespective of his qualifications, should have an opportunity at the bar. Legal minds differ from this conception. The American Bar Association some years ago adopted minimum standards for admission to the bar. These require at least two years of college work, or its equivalent, and at least three years of law school study. There is then some reasonable assurance that those who are licensed to charge a fee for legal services will be competent for the work they are called upon to do. Nineteen of the states—led by West Virginia—have adopted these requirements. These standards, adopted because of the experience of years, have been set with due regard to the dictates of prudence and reason, and the Association's responsibilities to the public. It is indispensable that the lawyer be well grounded in those studies necessary to equip him to participate in the economic and political life of the country upon an equal basis with those with whom he comes in contact.

The lawyer, too, when called to the bar, should have a properly educated and balanced civic conscience, an intimate and complete knowledge of his

ethical duties towards the public and towards his client, as well as a due regard for the high moral obligations about to be assumed. This requirement, stressed in this generation and developed because of the peculiar demand for its existence, is founded upon sound public policy. The leading law schools of the country are meeting this requirement with practical unanimity. The rule inures solely to the wellbeing of society. The legal profession seeks your cooperation, and thru you that of the general public, to assist it in making these minimum requirements the universal standard of the country. It craves merely the right to make a learned profession more capable of handling the problems the centuries have referred to it and stable enough to meet the demands the future may make upon it. For the law student of today is your judge, your legislator, your diplomat, your president of tomorrow.

There is a growing sentiment, too, and a just demand for revision in the adjective or administrative branch of the law, popularly called the "law's delay." It is truthfully said that delay in trial is denial of justice. There is delay and too much of it. Every unselfish lawyer of any consequence knows it and deplores it. It is the system, not the lawyers, which is at fault. We have in America today an archaic system of procedure, certainly ancient in Lord Bacon's time. The courts do not make their own rules of procedure, nor may they change them. The legislatures of our states, with a few exceptions, have relegated that function to themselves. Time and again, in every manner in which the bar can speak, it has called the attention of our people to the woeful condition of legal procedure. If the courts were given that power, which lawyers describe as the rule-making power, the courts would assume that responsibility. Delay, then, would be obviated and the cost of litigation materially reduced.

Nor are the rules governing and the conditions surrounding the trial of criminal actions less deplorable. There was once a period in our legal history when the accused was presumed to be guilty until he proved himself innocent. Now the presumption of innocence follows the accused at every stage of the trial. And with this presumption, and because of it, there have grown up many theories intended to protect the accused, which, if innocent, the accused does not need for his protection. The pendulum has swung too far the other way. For this reason, so-called third-degree methods, as illegal and deplorable as the commission of the original crime, have developed. A prudent regard for the ends of justice requires that commonsense rules and methods of trial be used which are in accord with presentday thought. Trials should be legal arbitrations and the courthouses temples of exact and concrete justice, instead of neighborhood showhouses, to which the public may resort for amusement or to satisfy their insatiate curiosity. After years of study by competent men, the legal profession is about to present to the nation a new criminal code, which, if adopted by the states, will eliminate most of the evils and secure a quicker administration of criminal justice.

Justice, you will admit, demands relief from archaic and unjust rules of procedure and evidence, both in the civil and criminal realm. That reform, we hope, is now definitely on the way.

There is no more disconcerting trend in the legal realm today than the law of marriage and divorce. There is, indeed, no subject of more vital importance to the nation. Let me emphasize it simply. While the population of this country from 1867 to 1929 increased 300 percent, marriages increased 400 percent and divorces about 2000 percent. Over a period of sixty-odd years, the rate of divorce has advanced five times as rapidly as the marriage population. Marriage partnership has given away to a limited liability stock corporation, according to *World's Work*. The number of divorces to marriages has now increased to one divorce in every six and a fraction marriages. No such condition exists in any other civilized nation, unless it be in Communistic Russia, where statistics are not available.

In America, too, we have developed what is known as a migratory divorce, that is a divorce gotten at some place other than the actual residence of the parties. Keen competition has arisen among a few of the states. Nevada once required a six months' residence. Arkansas and Idaho reduced the period required to three months, and Nevada, to save its business, made its jurisdictional period one of six weeks. Mexico is bidding for business. Divorce, in that country, can be gotten by consent of the parties. It is possible, under the present regime, to secure a divorce and remarry within a period of two hours.

It was suggested that the problem would be solved by the granting of the voting privilege to women. But in the last ten years of equal suffrage, divorce has been growing and wives seek the divorce court three times as often as the husbands. And fewer cases are contested by wives.

Last week in Chicago, a learned professor, speaking before the Association for the Advancement of Science, proposed divorce by agreement of the parties. Some churchmen replied in the press. All should have examined the statistics on the subject. Of the 189,863 divorces granted in this country in 1930, 163,320, or almost nine-tenths, of the cases were uncontested by the defendant. This statement brings to the fore the charge that at the present time most divorce suits are the result of agreement or collusion between the parties—that, in legal parlance, the so-called controversy is one in name and not in fact. Every lawyer knows that, in any other character of case when so great a percentage of non-contests exist, that a friendly suit is pending. Indeed, every lawyer of any experience has heard of some case where the defendant furnished the plaintiff with evidence, for evidence there must be to satisfy the demands of the law. If these statements are true—and they are—we have divorce in this country by agreement of the parties, which, while not so bold and open an arrangement as in Russia, or its prototype—our neighboring nation of Mexico, is nevertheless just as effective.

South Carolina grants no divorces. New York, with one jurisdictional ground, has one divorce to every twenty marriages; the District of Columbia, with a similar condition, has one in forty; Nevada, with its generous stat-

utes, has one divorce to every two and a fraction marriages. And one-third of divorcees remarry.

Banns should be published; marriages should be celebrated at the domicile of one of the parties; Gretna Greens—of which there are sixty-odd, according to the Department of Commerce—should be abolished; migratory divorces ought to be prohibited; and the all-important question—the right to remarry—should be granted only in case of annulments on grounds existing at the time of the marriage and not for divorce upon causes arising afterwards. This was and is the common law. And the glory of the common law was and is that it is founded upon the precepts of the natural law.

You are interested in the children. The larger the family, the fewer marriages end in divorce. In four out of five cases, children are granted to the wife. It is true that the mother regards divorce as a severance of the marital relationship only; for the father, divorce generally signifies loss of parental relationship, as well. And while statistics are meager, the reports of orphan asylums and homes for children show a greater and growing number of children of divorced families utterly dependent for their rearing and education upon these institutions. Indeed, one eminent writer goes so far as to say that “divorce and crime go hand in hand, and juvenile crime is sheltered beneath its wing.”

The children of this country are the peculiar care of the teachers. For the sake of them alone, this problem should arrest your attention and demand your serious consideration.

And, while we are upon the subject of children, let me say a few words on the so-called Child Labor Amendment. There was a time in the country in the not distant past, when we had a growing sore of child employment. It was not peculiar to any section of the country. You could find it in spots wherever grasping employers existed who had neither love for little children nor respect for social justice. In every state now there are laws, more or less stringent, forbidding and prohibiting the employment of children under fifteen at any kind of labor and under sixteen, at least, at hazardous occupations. School attendance, too, has become compulsory.

Child labor is inhuman. Sentiment for its suppression found articulation in two efforts at Congressional action—both of which laws were adjudged to be federal usurpation of state authority. Then came the submission of the so-called Child Labor Amendment. Its ratification has been and is urged by many well-meaning people. It has the endorsement of the American Federation of Labor—the most conservative labor organization on earth.

Let me briefly give you these facts pertaining to the subject at the time of submission:

According to the 1920 census, there were forty millions of people in this country under the age of eighteen, the age line set by the amendment. Of these 12,502,582 were between ten and fifteen years of age. Inasmuch as the Census Bureau statistics for 1920 were founded upon the then existing law, the figures given cover these ages. There is a difference between child employment or “children in gainful occupations,” and child labor. “Children

in gainful occupations" include those who work on the farm for the parents, during vacation, after school hours—in fact all kinds of intermittent work outside of school hours and in perfectly legal employment. Child labor implies any kind of work, but generally continuous labor, whether paid or not.

Of the 12,502,582, above referred to, 1,060,858 were employed in gainful occupations, a decrease of 46.7 percent from 1910. Or to put it another way there were almost double the number of children working in 1910 than in 1920.

Of these 1,060,858 children, 647,309 were engaged in agricultural pursuits. Eighty-eight percent were unpaid, working after school hours or during vacation on the home farm, and 12 percent worked either for, or under the direction of, their own parents.

Of the 413,549 engaged in non-agricultural pursuits, 364,444 were legitimately employed. There were 49,105 only, less than fifteen, whose employment was a matter of legal concern, and of these 12,789 were newsboys, leaving only 36,316 children out of a possible 12,502,582, or not quite three-tenths of one percent, actually engaged in child labor. Apparently the amendment, when submitted, intended to take care of those 36,316 children scattered over the land.

The statistics for 1930 are far more favorable. Time does not permit comparison. It is apparent that, because of proper public sentiment, what was once a real has become a phantom problem. Let us avoid another constitutional blunder. We must not substitute sentimental emotionalism for the realm of reason.

Let me briefly say this of the Child Labor Amendment: The proposed amendment is the broadest grant of power ever attempted to be given to the national government. No reason now exists for the grant. It applies to agricultural and domestic labor, as well as all other exertion. It can be used to prevent children under eighteen from laboring, as well as nationalize education and be the basis for required military training. It is not a Child Labor Amendment. It was not so intended. It is a socialistic measure. Altho advocated by many well-meaning people, it is a communistic effort to nationalize children, making them responsible primarily to the government instead of to the parents. It strikes a blow at the home. It appears to be a part of a definite, positive plan to destroy the republic and substitute therefor a social democracy. It is opposed to the ideals of our American institutions. Fourteen states have ratified it. If you respect our constitutional structure, under which we are now functioning, you will do your utmost to defeat it. It was defeated when submitted. It can be done again. It constitutes an ever-present threat, because it contains no time limit for state action. It should be relegated to the storehouse of political blunders and a perpetual timelock placed on the door.

The last two decades have witnessed a remarkable advance in the realm of substantive law—most of it in the domain of social justice.

Workmen's compensation and insurance, in its various forms; the recognition of the principle of collective bargaining and the relative rights and duties of organized labor; the changed status of women; the complete regulation of public utilities, their charges and their earnings; the enlargement of the municipal function; the abolition of special privileges in business and the regulation of unfair competition; the resumption of control and regulation of natural resources upon the part of the states; the growth of government by commission; the development of the commerce and "general welfare" clauses of the Constitution; the spread of education and compulsory attendance in the primary grades—these may be mentioned as a few of the contributions of this generation to our system of jurisprudence.

Hardly had the automobile thrust itself and its tortious and contractual incidents into the legal field of endeavor, than the radio and the aeroplane came into being, for the relative rights and duties of which, we had no guiding precepts from the centuries beyond. Today, the profession is struggling with the theory as to whether an act, which would be a tort if committed upon the ground, shall become a happening *damnum absque injuria*, if committed, without wantonness, by a falling plane from the air. And upon this theory, properly settled, will depend for centuries to come the relative rights and duties of property owners and airmen in the American law.

Cognizant of the anti-social trends of the age, many men of contemplative minds wondered where the present criminal trend would lead us. Political corruption in the municipal realm, the underworld man, complete defiance of unpopular statutes—each has brought disrespect for all law. If, as statistics tend to prove, there is a change for the better, certainly it is a matter of congratulation. The teachers of this country, thru their researches and studies, owe a duty to society to discover the origin and help the people to correct this unfortunate and alarming situation.

Is it any wonder, then, in this rapidly changing atmosphere of economic thought, in the reflection of these social trends, that the law, without precedent, has made so many mistakes and has found and is finding difficulty in administering justice between man and man?

Is it amazing that the unthinking, groping in this labyrinth of social unrest and of material progress, should find their consolation in blaming the lawyers and especially the courts for this condition?

The wonder is that our legal system still lives. The amazement is that the anti-social forces were not able to substitute the rule of majorities for the concepts of the natural law.

No one denies that defects exist in the body of the law or its adjective principles. A simple statement of the facts just enumerated, proves it. It was ever thus. It will be so until the end of time. Legal concepts are always changing, legal dogmas are superseded from time to time; some cherished and, to us, vital rule, today, may become a fiction or disregarded precept tomorrow. The object of the lawgiver, whether the autocrat or a free people, should be to reduce these changes of law, as the adjective of justice, to a minimum.

Never in the history of law, has a legal system been so strained, so confronted in so many different ways for good and evil, than our system during the present century, both in public and private law. If, then, our courts have seemed ultra-conservative, it has been in the interest of justice. The trend of their decisions shows that they have an inherent hesitancy, born of wisdom, to construct new paths along new avenues of thought. Certainly they have tried to make the crooked road straight, to cut down the hills, to level up the depressions. But let it be noted that they have been as careful as the courts of yonder years to ascertain that the slopes and banks of public welfare on either side of the road were properly constructed and sufficiently strong to stand the strain. Their duty to civilization, alone, demanded it.

As education becomes more widespread, as ideas change, as invention forces some new method upon us, the law absorbs it. Let us not, then, eulogize or condemn ourselves. We find forces for good and evil in every stage of history. Each generation contributes some thought of material value to the sum total of human intelligence, and, it may be, that history will accord to this age more substantial contributions than other periods of time. For that very reason our endeavor should be to avoid embracing every social whim, every ill-conceived formula, and attempt to give it the force of law. We must not substitute state socialism for social justice. We must not exchange the fleeting conceit of the times for the experience of ages. In the interest of the commonweal, we must maintain inviolate the fundamental principles of our constitutional structure. Education and regulation will bring their own reward. Duelling, imprisonment for debt, and slavery are gone. Other problems of today, with the help of an enlightened and educated people, will have their solution tomorrow.

Remember, the concepts of justice, as distinguished from law, never change. They are enduring with the centuries. They are the basic principles of right, described by Justinian as the constant and perpetual desire to give everyone his due. They live, tho the law thru which they once sought to demonstrate themselves, falls into the discard and is lost, save to the period of history of which it is a part.

Here, then, lies the duty of this Association. Upon you largely lies the future of this republic. Yours is the duty to train the next generation. Upon you do we rely to give us men and women who will be morally sound, lovers of social justice, equal and exact liberty, advocates and practitioners of the fundamental principles of right; men and women into whom has been inculcated a respect for law, an adherence to and knowledge of our form of government, and an abhorrence for graft and crime. If your task is successful, and we pray it will be, then will we be able to continue the construction and maintenance of a system of American law, dedicated to the cause of justice, that will be the controlling factor in the maintenance of peace and the perpetuation of our American institutions.

EDUCATION AND THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

LOUIS A. JOHNSON, NATIONAL COMMANDER, AMERICAN LEGION,
CLARKSBURG, W. VA.

When your president was good enough to offer me the privilege of appearing before this distinguished gathering, he suggested that I take for the title of my remarks, "Education and the National Defense." I can think of no subject I would rather discuss. I can think of no subject that is more important to our country. The two terms are synonymous, and reduced to their common definition they mean security, prosperity, and peace. Those are goals that the National Education Association and the American Legion are striving together to win for posterity.

It is only natural, of course, that when a former soldier gets up and talks about national defense, many perfectly intelligent and well-informed persons immediately suspect that he is biased, that he is militaristic, and that he would burden the country with unnecessary armaments merely to satisfy some pride born of his former service. Let me say to you that there are no more ardent lovers of peace in the world than those of us who witnessed the horrors of modern warfare a decade and a half ago. I believe I am safe in saying no group in all the world more devoutly prays that the curse of war never again shall afflict this fair land than the million or more men who comprise the American Legion.

We who went thru the baptism of fire know what it is to leave comfortable homes and travel half across the world to spend months of horror in mud and blood. We know how it feels to crawl into dank, musty billets, wondering how soon a phantom wave of poison gas or the sudden crash of shrapnel is to send us to join that host of gallant comrades we saw fall in combat. I am sure that there are among your own membership, seated here in this auditorium, many who can testify by personal experience to the truth of these statements.

Be assured that we, veterans of the greatest war in history, are among the most peace-loving of the world's inhabitants, and because we so sincerely cherish the security of our national institutions and the contentment of happy homes, the American Legion always has stood firmly for an adequate national defense. We ask only that our national defense shall be sufficient to assure proper protection for the country we were ready to die for and our happy homes. We would energetically oppose any program of aggression. As I have said repeatedly, we of the Legion take our theory of national defense from the Bible, from the good book Luke, from which I quote: "A strong man well armed keepeth his palace in peace." We but seek that America shall be sufficiently strongly armed that no foreign aggressor shall come to disturb the peace of our shores.

The keystone of the Legion's national defense program is education, and we are proud to salute you, who have been entrusted with the high duty of preparing the coming generations for the responsibilities and joys of American citizenship, and to offer you our heartiest cooperation in every

field of your great work. The future of our country is in your keeping. As you mold the young minds of today so the American of tomorrow will be fashioned. That is a heavy responsibility, but a glorious one.

If we, the custodians of the youth of our country, work to build strong bodies and healthy minds, America has nothing to fear from the future. But our job is not as simple as it was twenty years ago. The depression, a heritage of the great war, has closed many of our schools, many of our teachers are working without pay because state, county, and municipal governments are too impoverished to meet their financial obligations. Insidious influences are battering at our gates, striving to force upon us a government of slavery for the free democracy our forefathers builded and bequeathed us.

I do not want to seem prematurely optimistic, but I am sure we all sincerely believe the night of the depression is near its end, that already the light of a new dawn of a better day, is breaking over the horizon. That is a challenge to our courage, to our patriotism. We have all suffered hardships. Unfortunately, the hand of the depression has fallen more heavily upon some of us than upon others. But let us all banish any lingering bitterness from our hearts, let us gladly accept the opportunity for high service, for the molding of a healthy, courageous American citizenship that is within our grasp.

I have pointed out to you that education is the keystone of the Legion's national defense program. I should like to outline to you in a few words some of the things we are doing to help prepare our boys and girls for good citizenship, because, of course, the education of our youth is the primary objective.

I trust that it will not appear unbecoming for me to admit genuine pride when I tell you that approximately fifty percent of the income from the Legion's \$5,000,000 endowment fund is used for child welfare work, for the building of sound bodies and happy, healthy minds. The other fifty percent is used for the rehabilitation of disabled World War veterans, regardless of whether or not they are affiliated with the Legion. I am proud of such a program. On the one hand we are contributing liberally of our time and money to prepare our future generations for the duty that awaits them, and on the other we are doing our bit to lighten the burden of those of our comrades who fell in defense of this glorious country. I challenge any organization to show me a more worthy program.

Education must be the foundation of any well-balanced national defense program. We can build vast armies and powerful navies to protect us for a day, but unless we make sure that the citizens who step into our places as we pass on are *true Americans*, that they will be as zealous as we have been in passing our form of government on to their successors, we shall have labored in vain. I have said before, and I repeat it again, our children are our second chance. In our brief span of life we cannot hope to realize all of the ambitious objectives we work toward, but thru our children we can realize our fondest destiny, the dreams of every true American:

A nation that shall make good the longings and ambitions of all mankind, a nation that faces the consequences unafraid, a nation that will lead on.

No nation can stand still. To be contented with what we have is the first step toward retrogression, decay, and oblivion. Our forefathers founded this nation upon the simple principle of equal opportunity, freedom of initiative, the right to worship God according to the dictates of our conscience, and the perpetuation of an indivisible union for the common good.

From that beginning we have builded a nation that today is the hope of a troubled world. We shall pass the torch on to a generation that is well prepared to carry it ever onward to the ultimate goal of lasting peace, plenty, and goodwill among all nations.

In the field of education the Legion endeavors to encourage the qualities of honor, courage, scholarship, leadership, and service among boys and girls thru the American Legion School Award plan. To the student who attains the highest standing in these high qualities in each of our state departments we award a medal. Teaching a true sense of the obligation every citizen owes to his flag is another part of our child-training program. We work in close cooperation with you, the members of the National Education Association, in the observance of American Education Week, and with the Constitution Educational Association in the observance of Constitution Week.

We believe that a strong body is essential to the development of a healthy mind. To that end we help to train our youths to coordinate physical and mental alertness. We combine lessons in citizenship and patriotism with physical training. And, parenthetically, let me tell you that those who would impose the slavery of Communism upon us recognize as well as we that the age of adolescence is a fertile field in which to plant their propaganda. It is well known that Communist groups in this country establish camps every summer, and there teach boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 21, class hatred and contempt for our national institutions. It has been proved that their curriculum demands a daily salute and pledge of allegiance to the red flag of Communism.

We shall continue unhesitatingly to combat such activities not only thru our own youth activities program but by cooperating closely with such worthy organizations as the Boy Scouts. In the Boy Scouts of America we have one of the most effective avenues possible for encouraging good citizenship—which, after all, means only love of country, respect for law, honesty, cleanliness of mind and body, and good sportsmanship. Our 10,760 posts are engaged energetically in helping to organize Boy Scout troops in their respective communities. The national heads of the Boy Scouts of America recently paid tribute to our service in this direction by declaring that the American Legion has become the greatest single influence for extending the activities of their organization in the country.

We reach out to assist in the training of those of our younger generation who have gone on to high school and college by supporting and assisting in the formation of Citizens' Military Training Camps, the Reserve Officers Training Corps, the 4-H Clubs, and similar organizations. Ours is not

merely passive support. We give of our time, energy, and resources to see that these beneficial activities are continued. In the present need for economy, some of them, particularly the C. M. T. C. and R. O. T. C., have suffered severely. The latter two may even be abandoned for the present. That only means to the Legion that we shall have to fight all the harder for their continuance as essential elements in training for citizenship and the establishment of an adequate national defense. Back in 1917 and 1918, we were taught that there was no such word as "retreat." That is a lesson we have never forgotten—particularly when we are standing up for the security of our government.

The American Legion's citizenship and national defense program does not stop with our youths. It includes instruction of immigrants for the honor and privilege of citizenship and the teaching of a good community spirit among the adult members of our individual communities. The pledge in the preamble to the Legion's constitution—"To inculcate a sense of individual obligation to the community, state, and nation"—commands us to carry on in this work. We have preached the gospel of civic pride thruout the land, we have founded playgrounds in untold numbers, our post clubhouses serve hundreds of communities as their sole centers for civic meetings and activities, we have established community emergency relief units, we initiate safety-first programs, wage campaigns for the elimination of fire hazards, urge the conservation of natural resources, and work in more ways than I can take the time to tell you about today to encourage a good, healthy, and patriotic citizenship. Our posts are engaged in over two hundred projects for the betterment of their communities.

Thus we have builded the foundation—the keystone—of our national defense program, and I pass on to the second phase of that important work. It concerns the maintenance of an army, navy, and marine corps of sufficient strength to insure that no foreign foe may ever land an expeditionary force on our shores, and to safeguard our right of free commerce with all the world.

Regardless of what special condition may have afflicted you individually in the last three years, the depression thru which our country has passed is a result of the World War. It would be even more correct to say *it is part of that war*. The guns may have been silenced fifteen years ago but the readjustment still remains for you and me to settle in an orderly way. That is a duty that calls for continued service, and perhaps further sacrifices, from all of us.

It was inevitable that out of a cataclysm such as the World War there should come overwhelming economic disorders and political chaos. Many generations will pass before the price of that war has been paid in full. Every field of endeavor has suffered, but I can think of none that has suffered a blow more disastrous to our very civilization than that which has fallen upon our educational system. When education is put in disorder it is time, indeed, to take counsel.

In hundreds of communities in this country schools have been closed entirely; in many more, school hours have been curtailed severely. Thousands of teachers have worked for months, many for even years, without pay. Legions of young men and women have been graduated from colleges only to find that there was no field in which to apply their energies. The effect of such a condition on our growing generations is appalling. We who had the benefit of an education can bear the temporary suffering of this period, but those who are denied an education by it are handicapped for life.

Are we to let this condition beset our country again? We of the American Legion say most emphatically, No! That is why, from the day we took off our uniforms and returned to our chosen vocations, we have insisted that our country maintain an army, navy, and marine corps adequate for the defense of our country. We shall continue our fight for that principle. We are determined that the danger of another war involving our country shall be minimized to the lowest possible degree. As long as world conditions are what they are, nothing but reasonable military preparedness will give us assurance of peace.

If the United States had been adequately prepared in 1917, I doubt that the incidents which forced us to enter the war ever would have occurred. Certainly, if we had been properly prepared when we did go in, the war would have ended months sooner and hundreds of thousands of lives would have been saved. If we had been armed in proportion to our needs in 1914 I question whether the war ever would have occurred. The greatest military experts in the country agree on all three of these premises, yet we are in a fair way to making the same mistakes all over again.

It is entirely right and proper that the United States should work to bring about a reduction in armaments and to hasten that day we all pray for, when world peace shall be established permanently and all nations shall live as brothers. But that day is not here, it is not even in prospect, and we of the American Legion will fight to the end to prevent our country from disarming, either as a *beau geste* in the hopes that the other nations will follow our example or on the false premise of the need for economy. It is no economy to throw away the lock to your strong box, and by the same token neither is it economy to destroy the army and navy that safeguards our government, our homes, and our individual possessions.

The American army and navy are both far below the strength that is necessary to give us equality with other first-class powers. There is serious talk in Washington of still further reductions in the army. We cannot afford another cut. I am glad to note that at last we are about to make a substantial start toward bringing our navy, at least, up to parity with the other powers. Let us hope that a way will be found to organize our army too, on a basis sufficient to our needs.

As a nation we should be willing to reduce our armaments in equal proportion with the other powers, but at the same time, insisting upon maintaining the accepted principle that the United States is entitled to a navy second to none and an army of sufficient strength to serve as the nucleus for a land

force in time of emergency adequate to protect our country against foreign invasion. There is nothing militaristic about such a program. It is only common sense. If every other nation were willing to accept as little the world, indeed, would make a substantial step toward universal and permanent peace.

And now, as I must end, I want to give to you a picture. I see an army of 24,000,000 American boys and girls in the schools of this country, marching up to fill the ranks as we of the American Legion and the generations to which we belong gradually pass out of time. That vast army of children in grade and high schools, students in colleges, will come forward year by year, replacing us. I thrill as I see them today, getting ready for their heritage—in classrooms, on playgrounds, wherever I go, bright-faced, untouched for the most part by the troubles which come with age, happy, confident, eager to reach the promised land of maturity. Oh, that land is not as they picture it, but who would shatter their illusions! We hail them today, citizens of tomorrow, and invoke blessings for them as they come close to their destiny.

WHAT NEXT IN EDUCATION?

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Coming from a state whose educational adversities have been cast to the four winds I am perhaps expected to return a gloomy answer to the question, "What Next in Education?" I am not to speak either apologetically or defensively. I prefer to speak, not so much as the representative of a state or a section, but rather as an American citizen. In our present dilemma it would seem that the experiences of states and sections are of worth principally as they contribute to the solution of the whole big problem of the future of education thruout the nation.

We in the South are more or less inured to the cruel poverty that follows war. It is needless to recount the deprivations and the sufferings of that long period of depression ended with the dawn of the present century. Added to paucity of resources, there were the skepticism and often the open hostility of a proud and once wealthy people with reference to public schools. If by dint of great sacrifice money was to be had for education, the hurdles of selfish individualism, pride, and prejudice must first be surmounted. By distressful experience we are learning now for the second time what it means to lack money for schools and, moreover, what it means to struggle against opposition to schools supported at public expense.

Depression is not entirely without its compensations. Retrenchment and economy are not new words in our educational terminology. Between the upper and nether millstones of economic necessity, during that long period prior to the year 1900, we mastered the practical art of making a few dollars go a long way in the maintenance of an educational system.

Out of economic adversity came also a group of professional and lay leaders, men like Aycock and McIver, Page and Alderman, of North Carolina; Dabney and Claxton, of Tennessee; Curry, Phillips, and Abercrombie, of

Alabama, prophets and priests of education, proponents of a new philosophy of government that gripped the imaginations and stirred the enthusiasm of people everywhere. At last our civil polity contemplated education for a whole people at public expense. With respect to education, our governmental structures were democratic and sound.

It should not be necessary to recount the admirable progress made in education thruout the South during the thirty-year period immediately preceding these unhappy times. According to the tangible evidences we still ranked low among the states with respect to educational facilities. Suffice it to observe the susceptibility of these tangible evidences to correction on account of the intangible influences that permit only theoretical measurement at most. Suffice it also to note the vast and ever-increasing expenditures during the period, in town and in country, both for capital outlay purposes and also for the current operation of schools. In our cities, magnificent, million-dollar structures for the education of high-school children are not uncommon; in villages and open country, modern consolidated schools are to be found everywhere. Until depression came, inadequacy of educational facilities was principally a problem of rural education.

If during good times educational facilities were still comparatively poor or inadequate, we were making such progress with respect to the organization, administration, and supervision of education as perhaps was being made in no other section of our country. In such matters as transportation and consolidation our record is altogether creditable. Indeed, there are those who believe that our enthusiasm for these recently developed instruments and agencies for the improvement of education has run ahead of our business judgment. Until a few years ago we were rapidly eliminating the district school, now predominantly taboo with students of educational administration. Best examples of the larger unit of administration (usually the county unit) were to be found in the South. We were open-minded. We were not averse to experimentation. In such matters as curriculum-making, supervision, the selection of superintendents and other administrative and supervisory officials on the basis of merit, we had abundant evidence of a bold and aggressive leadership at work. All the circumstances considered, we think we were carrying our share of the work for American education.

In the midst of progress came depression—so far as education is concerned, *financial chaos* would be an apter phrase. Again, it is unnecessary to recount our presentday financial difficulties. Whether on the basis of actual needs or on the basis of comparison with other states or sections, funds for the support and maintenance of our educational systems have always been inadequate. When depression came funds were no longer in sight for the further advancement of any educational interest or institution. At first the financial problem of education in Alabama growing out of this situation was primarily one of prompt payments by the state of its assumed obligations to the various county and city boards of education and other boards of control, and of holding fast as well to the school revenues heretofore obtainable from the various local sources.

Our program of education, always inadequate to our needs and always more or less restricted, has now suffered the most serious curtailments. In certain rural areas there have been shortened terms of school. In some places schools have closed. The alarm is constantly sounding that still other schools must close. City school authorities are pleading desperately that the state come to the rescue. Salary schedules very generally have become inoperative. Following the old paths of least resistance, those in authority have reduced salaries that were always low enough. More is the pity, that teachers have gone unpaid, many of them for months. In the cities, in the rural areas, and at the institutions, our creditable building programs have practically ceased. Consolidation, transportation, supervision, standardization, and teacher training, all, on a praiseworthy and soundly progressive basis, if not in jeopardy, must await the return of a better day for further advances.

The property tax, principal source of state and local revenues for schools, diminishes as would be expected in times such as these. Appropriations for education, payable from the general treasury of the state, have been drastically reduced, by the legislature. The state is behind with its obligations to the various administrative educational units in the sum of approximately \$15,000,000, with no definite assurance as to when these obligations shall be met. Our recently enacted Budget and Financial Control Act balances the budget of the state but thru its system of prorations makes impossible sound budgetary procedure by any board of education or board of trustees of an educational institution. In a recent opinion of the attorney general of the state, interpreting the Budget and Financial Control Act, the astounding tenet is advanced that education is not an essential of government.

In these circumstances, naturally enough there are those who believe that our entire public-school system is threatened with collapse. To the contrary, there are those who believe that life is like the dance; that life is rhythmical; that it is a series of ups and down. There are those who believe with the Psalmist of old that

Weeping may tarry for the night,
But joy cometh in the morning.

We in the South, particularly in Alabama, are for the *second time* in the midst of persistent, continuing depression. With the possible exception of a few places, like Chicago, so far as public education is concerned, we are face to face with depression at its worst. Ours, therefore, is the big job of determining what the future of education shall be. This we believe to be the job of good leadership—leadership that brooks no discouragement, admits no defeat, accepts the present plight of the schools only as a temporary affair, a passing consequence of hard times.

I have sketched hastily and quite superficially the dire effects of two periods of depression upon education in Alabama and in the South. In such times as these we inevitably turn our attention first to the financial plight of the schools. All our schools from lowest to highest are, indeed, in desperate need of money. But the roots of the present trouble strike far deeper than our financial difficulties.

It is difficult to view with complacency the celerity with which many educators have moved to effect economies that in the long run may not prove to be economies at all. In the present emergency we need to distinguish retrenchment from economy. The public has the right to demand economy in educational administration at all times. It should expect retrenchments only as financial reverses and limitations may make them necessary. We must not overwork words. We must be practical people. We must command the attention of the whole public and its sympathetic understanding of the problems of educational administration. Critical and searching investigations of the various aspects of the cost of education are neither to be feared nor to be opposed, provided only that all such investigations shall be made of all governmental functions and agencies and that all shall be scrapped that shall be found to have survived their usefulness.

Curtailement of educational expenditures by force of necessity is one thing; to admit extravagance and to set up permanent or long-time programs of education on reduced bases in the name of economy is quite another thing. To rush headlong into readjustments in the name of economy may subject us, not without show of reason, to the charge that we have all along been parties to indefensible extravagance. Salary reductions and other adjustments in educational expenditures are of course to be expected and defended in the present circumstances but the failure to provide for a quick readjustment to the decreased purchasing power of the dollar or to increased cost of living due to any other cause is not to be tolerated. Temporary adjustments to meet present conditions; reorganization as a part of an intelligent, honest, and harmonious plan for the reorganization of all the functions and agencies of government; subjection to the strictest scrutiny and tests as to educational needs; but not abject surrender!

We who are professionally engaged in education are not mainly responsible for the extravagances—if there have been extravagances—in the cost of education. Our plants and equipment, our magnificent and costly school structures, beautiful temples of light and love, erected to the glory and dedicated to the education of youth, our extensive teaching staffs of trained and competent men and women, our ever-expanding curriculum offerings, all these, have been provided in orderly and legal ways, if not upon the demand, certainly with the willing consent and with the loving sacrifices of citizens in general and of the constituted authorities. Who shall be so bold as to say that we were more than parties affiliated with the citizenship of all America in an era of idealism as well as of realism?

The times are propitious for the work of radicals and reactionaries. Demagogues, designing politicians, and self-seeking opportunists thrive on misfortune and discontent. The significance of the educational problems growing out of the present economic depression does not lie in the mere fact that the onward march of schools and institutions for the time being is estopped but rather in the disturbed state of the public mind. There is no wholesome, dependable, composite judgment with respect to education. Solidarity is lacking among the beneficiaries of the educational system.

There is no unanimity of purpose, no concert of action, among those to whom we ordinarily look for guidance. Our interests conflict. We are selfish. We do not think in terms of larger educational units. We do not act harmoniously, for the common good.

Skepticism is the corollary of demoralization. It is no wonder, if in times of economic distress, coordinated educational effort goes to wreck. If retrenchment becomes necessary or even appears to be necessary, it is no wonder if those in authority or if those who are in any way concerned begin to look for educational appendages. We all remember Napoleon's famous saying: "An army moves on its stomach." If economic distress threatens even a part of the population with hunger; if banks are forced to close; if dividends dwindle and fortunes disappear, we must face bravely, painstakingly, intelligently, honestly, the questioning of all who are in doubt, particularly of the unthinking and the uninformed, concerning the various services essential in a comprehensive educational system. We must match wits with those who would seize the advantage of hard times to sacrifice democratic ideals of education upon the altar of selfishness. This is the great necessity. This is the fundamental problem growing out of the present economic distress.

Education for the present, let us say again, depends principally upon business management, upon retrenchments, upon the extent and kind of services to be maintained with the money at hand. But education for the future depends upon the success with which we cope with those selfish interests that seize the opportunity provided by a demoralized and skeptical public mind. It is difficult to escape the use of a much overworked and inept word. But it is certain that the public does not understand or appreciate the necessity for public education on its present bases. Protestations to the contrary, I suspect, are as old as time. Let me quote a sentence to illustrate: "The highest welfare, safety and power of a city consists in able, learned, wise, upright, cultivated citizens, who can secure, preserve, and utilize every treasure and advantage." These modern-sounding words were spoken more than four hundred years ago by Martin Luther. I wonder that some diligent researchist has not found that the first demagog won his political victory shouting for a free school and never did anything about it. However that may be, we have failed to imbue the public with sound, lasting, democratic ideals with reference to education.

Education has not failed. It is more needed today than ever before and doubtless will be needed more and more in the years to come. The progress we have made in the arts and sciences, we have made principally on account of education, not in spite of it. Education did not create this depression. If we are to be rid of it, we must repose our trust in men and women whom we ordinarily think of as educated. We must look ultimately to education for successful outcomes of all our religious, social, political, and economic affairs. Education at its best must provide for speedy readjustments as may necessarily arise from social or economic change. But social or economic changes in the future must be subject to the dominant influence, if not to

the direction and control, of education. Ours is the job to see to it that the common man—the mythical average man—is informed and taught to think about these things, particularly as problems of government.

Discussion, agitation, commiseration among ourselves as a professional group will do little or no good. The future of education will depend principally upon the understanding, the interests, the decisions, and the demands of the general public. The money-changers apparently desire to control, if not to monopolize for a small, selected group, leadership in all fields of endeavor. At least that is the inevitable consequence of restricting opportunities for education at the higher levels. We need a bolder self assertion. We need to redefine clearly and as permanently as may be the aims and objectives of education with respect to its organization, administration, and supervision. I hold it to be a major problem of those professionally and officially engaged in education to define and expound its philosophy, to fix its objectives, to determine wisely the amount and kind of education that should be provided in a democracy. We need to explain, to argue, to urge, to protest, to warn against the evil consequences of thoughtless, ruthless, and indiscriminate curtailment of the present educational program, and, above all, by the dominant assurance and authority that come of knowledge, to win the hearty support and approval of those who must pay the bill for American education.

It may be a platitude to sound the call for educational leaders, professional and non-professional, who shall show us the way out of the quagmire of demoralization, skepticism, ignorance, misinformation, selfishness, and all those other forces that combine and conspire to prevent or to retard the educational progress always to be desired and sought for in a democracy. This is the great necessity of the state and section whence I come. We must go back and do over the work of the fine and courageous leaders who have gone before us. We have failed at publicity. We have been indolent. We have lacked courage. We have resorted too frequently to *defense*; too infrequently to *challenge*. We must expect demoralization among those who are unorganized and undirected. We must expect skepticism of those who are uninformed. We must expect extravagant utterance of those who dare. We may not expect the public mind to be reflected in educational progress except as it is made to understand and moved to appreciate the inseparableness of education and the common good.

We in the South must produce another generation of leaders. We must look to another prophet and priest like J. L. M. Curry of Alabama, good "Educational Bishop of the South." We must look to another Captain of the Hosts like Charles B. Aycock of North Carolina, who died tragically but gloriously with the word, "Education," literally upon his lips. We must look to the lay group. Among our public officials, among our business and professional men, manufacturers, and farmers, we must develop leaders who will have vision, who will have sympathy for human suffering, who will heed the holy mandates of truth and duty, who will have time and strength and courage to preach the democratic doctrine of equality of educational

opportunity for every child. We need leaders that there may be judicially authorized definitions of the legal status of education; that education may be accepted for all time as an indispensable agency of government. We need for leaders, captains that there may be discipline; interpreters, that there may be understanding; messengers, that the word may be carried everywhere. Then, in spite of confusion, demoralization, skepticism and selfishness, in spite of the discouragement that comes of the present distressing lack of money, may we not say of the future of education—"Joy cometh with the morning?"

THE FUNCTION OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

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Never in the history of mankind has a people so widely distributed and representing such conflicting interests, met what has been falsely called "depression," with such glorious self-sacrifice and such magnificent self-control. Our democracy has kept pace with our century of progress, and, until now, our material progress has contributed to our democracy. So when, in a recent meeting of the National Council of Education, one of the distinguished speakers, with a bit of the quality which Richard Le Gallienne once called "a certain cynicism of the American people," interjected the question, "What is democracy anyhow?" I felt that I answered quite adequately with what I am sure many others may have thought an "empty abstraction" or a platitude. "Democracy," I said, "as each one of us well knows, is not an institution, a declaration, or a constitution; but *a common and controlling state of mind* in every individual and every group—*a continually growing strength, responsibility, love and faith, exercised toward a continually more inclusive body of people and a continually broadening and continually finer common welfare.*"

But when President Rosier asked me to answer the question, "What is the function of education in a democracy?" and I unhesitatingly replied to myself, "To teach each individual and every group how to preserve, perpetuate, and aid an ever-growing democracy, and how to maintain the peculiar conditions which have made possible the success of the American experiment," I felt, and I now feel, far less confident that the statement will mean to all Americans and to American teachers what it means to me.

Perhaps Miss Charl Williams gave you a more human and impressive idea of what I mean, when she so dramatically presented at one of our current meetings, the four Chicago boys who recently journeyed to Washington as the official representatives of 250,000 companions, to urge upon governmental commissions and officials, financial action helpful to Chicago schools.

Their clear and clean-cut arguments for their cause, the favorable impressions they made both in Washington and before the National Education Association, and their gentlemanly demeanor and social adaptiveness as guests of a gracious hostess exemplify in a way highly creditable to their

Chicago high-school training important phases of what direct education in democracy ought to be.

When democracy is defined, however, as generally as I defined it above, I firmly believe that the history of civilization itself—even tho written in the cynical fashion of Mr. Wells, is the story of the steady march of all mankind toward a continually completer democracy. From the brutal individualism of the caveman to some future community of "men as gods," thru families, tribes, kingdoms, alliances, empires, free cities, republics, and leagues of nations, men have concerned themselves with a continually expanding commonalty, and sought to give to more and more groups an ever-increasing common good.

I believe that the Soviet, Hitler, and Mussolini are alike, consciously or unconsciously engaged in applying what are perhaps the only means by which their several peoples can be made to concern themselves with a common good.

I know that it has become popular to insist that our spiritual development has lagged behind our material growth. But there is a relativity in human progress as well as in the movements of the celestial spheres.

The too obvious contrast between material and spiritual advancement loses sight of the fact that the spiritual growth of a race is of necessity slower than its material progress. A single scientist or inventor can create a new epoch in material civilization. A developing democracy demands a higher level for the whole social mass. More than this—prosperity and luxury often in themselves make spiritual growth more difficult.

When, for example, Dr. Bagley finds that the ordinary Frenchman is more moral than the ordinary American, it is due to the fact that the French peasant has far less material temptation to go wrong. It is harder to be good in America than in provincial France, and harder to be good in the great city of today than along some old colonial frontier.

In the face of all this, I am not at all sure that our spiritual growth has not outstripped every other phase of our civilization.

But it is in the United States alone, that majority rule, less a "tradition" than a belief that all men are created free and equal, has attempted the vast experiment of a government of the whole people, by the whole people, and for the whole people—a majority rule which is true to the experiment sublime, only when it is characterized by a common desire to further the common welfare, and which, like any other experiment, can be successful only under favorable conditions rigidly maintained.

The threat to American democracy today does not lie in the extraordinary but definitely defined powers temporarily conferred by the people themselves upon a trusted executive in a tremendous emergency. The legalistic accusation made by distinguished constitutional lawyers such as my fellow Philadelphian, Mr. Beck, that the national Congress is surrendering constitutional safeguards entrusted to it by the states and the people, loses sight of the fact that the most democratic feature of the United States Constitution is its abundant provision for change. If the common welfare is to grow, democracy must experiment. And Congress has given

the President the opportunity to experiment anew, because an overwhelming majority of the American people are anxious that new conditions shall be met by new solutions tho some of them will succeed and others fail.

There is no danger to democracy in a limited absolutism temporarily conferred and subject to prompt repeal. The danger comes from the disturbance of conditions favorable to the American experiment, in the absence of which we will lose all the peculiar advantages we possess in the inclusiveness and unity of our people and in the quality and the scope of our common good.

From the standpoint of an inclusive and harmonious people, there must be no interference with the personal liberty, the equality of opportunity, and betterment in living conditions, which more than any other factor, has made us a happy and contented people. We have no Jewish pogroms; no Kulaks dispossessed of property won thru superior industry and frugality; no nuns and monks driven from ancient establishments distinguished for devotion, service, and learning.

From the standpoint of the common welfare, we must not, thru a premature and interfering internationalism in finance and commerce, put the American workingman or the ordinary American in general—who after all, whether teacher, clerk, or physician, usually *is* a workingman—on the lower economic and spiritual level resulting from the displacement of American-made goods bought by American-earned income, with products made by cheaper labor in England, Germany, or Japan.

And, most fundamental of all, we must have no impairment of the American system of education which is the essential means both to democratic equality and to the superiorities to which we have become accustomed in our standards of living.

This education should, of course, include the academic instruction depended upon by our forefathers as the sole preparation for the duties of citizenship. The stern struggle of Horace Mann for a truly public education materially contributed to the onward march of democracy.

Dr. Bagley in his comparatively recent study of European education found that in general, democracy, at least in governmental forms, existed only in those nations which have systems of public education. And in spite of Hitlerism—with school children and athletes alike still marching to the goose step, so far as the permanent growth of democracy is concerned, this still holds true.

More than this, in the face of racketeering and of an equally ruthless profiteering in high finance at the expense of the whole people, education, as our own Association's recent study scientifically proved, still results in a lessening of crime.

Education for democracy must continue to include, as it does now include, the nationwide emphasis of the social studies which followed upon Dr. Judd's cooperative scheme for adapting the social sciences to schoolroom use, and the report of Dr. Dawson's committee on the Teaching of the Social Studies. Such emphasis has had not a little to do with preparing the public mind for

legislation and executive action under the advice of the "brain trust." One of the greatest needs of a democracy seeking a continual broadening of the common welfare is a growing faith in experts—conditioned, of course, by an increasing number of experts who inspire such faith, not only thru their common and trustworthy scientific attitude of mind, but thru their unquestioned devotion to democracy itself.

Neither the passing of intelligence tests, the committing to memory of declarations and constitutions, nor familiarity with the causes of poverty, nor any purely academic political or social training, will take the place of a universal personal familiarity with the common welfare, both matter-of-course and as determined by trusted experts; and of a loving and an eager personal furtherance of it thru any self-expression which aids it and insures each individual his own share in it, and thru any self-sacrifice which is necessary in demanding it and securing it for all others.

This is what the old National Council Committee meant by the "Teaching of Democracy." It involves not only an intelligent knowledge of the "problems of democracy," but an intelligent and self-sacrificing love of democracy itself. The public school must not leave as much as it has been accustomed to leave, the training of citizens in self-sacrifice, to the patriotism inspired by war or the charity compelled by disaster.

Democracy grows and becomes personally controlling more thru the pettier self-sacrifices which we make or withhold in the ordinary affairs and the usual situations which confront us in everyday life.

While for a specification of democracy essentials I shall have to refer you to the reports of the Committee on the Teaching of Democracy in the N. E. A. *Proceedings* from 1917 to 1924, beginning with the Democracy Questionnaire which so many superintendents were self-sacrificing enough to fill out, I shall attempt to illustrate the direct teaching of them all thru that of the democratic *equality* which so sharply contrasts itself with the equality of communism, sovietism, and even of socialism in its less radical forms.

Perhaps it is first of all necessary that American children should learn that the most fundamental difference between the equality of democracy and that of every other sort of institution and government, is that it demands no more self-sacrifice on the part of individual or group, than is indispensable to the good of all individuals and all groups. This difference is fundamental and determining for all other democracy essentials.

Beyond this, democratic equality has as its peculiar factors, first:

E—*Equivalent Return*, from a fair bargain such as Professor Tufts once defined in his *True Business of Living*, to highest performance and fair play in labor, and compensating service in return for political rights.

American children must be taught that there is such a thing as too much freedom—free admissions, free passes, free luncheons, free concerts, free schools, free art, and free religion; that in a democracy, if democracy is to endure, when much is given much must be given in return; that even the forced labor of the Soviet is more democratic than the English dole or our

American unemployment relief; that relief should be universal and adequate, but that not one cent should be given to able-bodied men and women, free from the care of young children, the sick, or the incapable—without some form of equivalent and compensating service which preserves their independence and their self-respect.

Our children must be taught that the American people must not be impoverished thru an international finance and commerce which surrenders our superior living conditions; but that even should we be impoverished, we must not be pauperized; that we cannot have as a political slogan "a full dinner pail and a high standard of living for every worker" without adding to it "a full and an honest and generous day's work in return for a living wage."

The shirker in industry, whether plumber or farmhand, is as undemocratic and un-American, tho no more so, than the profiteer in the country store, the pawnshop or, when he happens to be there, the private bank. Every political right and privilege has a compensating duty. Even the spiritual inheritance of the race carries with it the obligation of making it one's own.

As thru municipal orchestra or the radio or thru public museums and academies of the fine arts, the finest achievements of mankind in music and in art are made accessible to us by a princely private munificence or the wise expenditure of public funds, we owe to artists who starved in garrets and to musicians who composed their masterpieces in deafness or in blindness, the one equivalent return we can give them—an ever-growing discriminating and sympathetic appreciation of what they created.

Q—*Qualification for Equality Thru Self-Qualification.* The development of an ever-increasing appreciation, together with other factors in democratic equality, is impossible without self-qualification.

We must teach that equality as a right must thru self-effort become equality as a personal achievement; that no laws prohibiting Jim Crow cars or no elbowing of one's way into a desirable society can take the place of the hard won personal acquisition of the qualities necessary to unembarrassed and unembarrassing participation in the activities of every social group.

School children must learn that public schools and state colleges and universities, the right to pursue any sort of career, and even the privilege of entering upon the spiritual inheritance of the race, do not exist for any citizen who thru lack of self-qualification fails to improve the opportunity to enter into possession of his equal rights. Most of the equalities which characterize democracy must be self-earned.

U—*Unlimited Achievement and Compensation.* It is especially necessary that all citizens just now shall be taught to realize that from this self-qualification to the equality of achievement which comes thru highest effort, there must be no limit to individual accomplishment and compensation, except when they interfere with the common welfare. We must never forget that the common welfare cannot continually broaden and be ever increasing in the worths and the finenesses made accessible to all, if the worker, the scholar, the inventor, and the capitalist are not permitted to attain the highest achieve-

ment or to seek to attain it, thru the stimulus of unlimited possible compensation.

So long as the Soviet prohibits any extra material reward for the individual who works harder, accomplishes more, and does better work, daily achievement and the realization of Five-Year Plans will be limited to the dead level of what the least efficient or the less efficient can accomplish. America cannot afford to discourage superiority.

Excessive taxes imposed upon "excess profits" will surely lessen or wholly prevent some of the most adventurous types of achievement. There have been no James J. Hills and no building of Northwestern Railroads where vast capital is risked in tremendous adventures helpful to the common good, since excess profits have been reduced by extra taxation into small returns disproportionate to the great financial risks involved.

Notwithstanding bank failures and the misuse of our national resources, prejudice against "capitalism" will not gain ground in America, if children are taught to discriminate between local capital and local credit which while meeting local needs and serving local interests, can be invested with reasonable risks in great industrial or commercial undertakings where there is prospect of proportionate gain; and capital which drains the smaller communities and rural regions of credit needed for local enterprises, and makes banking and financing too remote to be personal and human.

They must come to know the difference between capital loaned to encourage legitimate business, and capital loaned for speculation on margin, which creates fictitious values and saps like a vampire bat the life blood of bolder achievement.

A concentrated control of capital must not be used to discourage new enterprises by demanding the lion's share of profits and by hijacking or racketeering successful businesses which, seeking legitimate expansion, have subjected themselves to the risk involved in the premature calling of great loans.

It must not use its power to consolidate American industries, transportation, and public service, into vast combinations, and to inflate stock values on the basis of prospective savings which could have more justly been used to reduce taxes or costs for the individual citizen or property owner.

It must never again lend in Europe and in South America billions needed at home, on indifferent, doubtful, or rotten security, in order to give favored financial interests enormous commissions on money which they themselves do not risk, but which represents the life savings of both the poor and the well-to-do and the spending power, and therefore the earning power, of the whole people.

And finally, capital drawn from the bank deposits and the insurance premiums of the nation, must not be used to create a vast private financial control which dominates American industry and commerce, commands or limits political action, and then seizes upon legal technicalities to avoid paying to the American people as a government, the taxes on the commissions which are but a small fraction of the taxables which were lost both to owners

and to government thru the insecure transactions upon which the commissions were acquired.

The vast majority of the American people have learned, and American children must be taught to remember, that no patriotic service, however loyal and efficient, on the part of individual members in such a partnership, and no princely patronage of the fine arts and endowment of institutions of learning, can justify the replacement of local control of local credit, by a cosmopolitan, international, and undemocratic financial system which prevents rather than aids the unlimited individual achievement and compensation which have made America prosperous and great.

Democracy does not demand like the Soviet, that money (to use the phrase of Dr. Butler) "be dethroned and expelled from the high place which it has been occupying for some 400 years." Money in some form or other—some highly stable and unfluctuating form—is essential to the exchange of goods; and the higher the degree of fineness of goods included in the common welfare, the higher the place which money must occupy in democratic society.

The democracy of capital depends upon the way in which it is used, which is only another way of saying that the capitalist must be the most democratic of all citizens. "Control of money and constant association with money," Dr. Butler goes on to say, "are perhaps the most demoralizing of human occupations. There is something about the contact and control which obscures moral principles and human values, and tends to develop a stiffly legalistic attitude toward every human relationship. This contact and control are uniformly accompanied by secretiveness, and secretiveness without any actual falsehood whatever is one of the most effective instruments of deceit."

Every American should be taught to realize the fundamental nature of this courageous pronouncement by President Butler. Capital will not be safe for America nor America for capital until the great financiers, whose affairs thru relationship to public prosperity, tho private, can never be kept secret, and perhaps with them, the distinguished lawyers whose advice keeps their activities "legalistic," have been so steeped in democracy, that they can exclaim with the psalmist, "My soul breaketh for the longing that it hath unto thine ordinances at all times."

All this it is the function of education in a democracy to teach.

A—Abilities and Skills Unequal, but Equal Rights and Opportunities. It is an obvious corollary of unlimited achievement and compensation, that unequal abilities and skills will for the most part remain unequal; and that equality of achievement lies only in highest individual effort. So far as the common good is concerned, all men are equal who serve it with all their might.

The equality of democracy is rather an equality of rights and of opportunities which, thru its very exercise and the provisions made to insure it, trains and educates unequal individual abilities into still more unequal skills.

But in a period of reduced taxation and lessening public income from taxation, it is necessary that both in our teaching and in our allotment of public funds, we should hold in mind the fact, that to maintain and insure

equality of rights and of opportunities, a truly democratic education must continue "universal," as Dr. Spaulding used to call it—universal in its inclusiveness of the kinds of education fitted to the needs of every individual and every group; universal in its inclusiveness of the common culture which gives every man the opportunity of being civilized and humane.

L—*An Equality thru Leveling up in Place of Leveling Down.* And finally, equality as regards the common welfare—social and spiritual as well as material, must be brought about thru a leveling up rather than a leveling down. A living wage as shown in a continually improving standard of living—more comfortable housing, more attractive dressing, more automobiles and radios, is only at best a favorable condition to a fuller and a finer self-expression and appreciation—a continually completer individual participation in the spiritual inheritance of the race.

America cannot afford to permit a leveling down. There is nothing characteristic of night club and roadhouse, which cannot be better done in the African jungle. Barbarians and savages can dance longer, drink harder, and make louder whoopee. They can even be more naturally and effectively nude.

The street cleaner who sings the "Venetian Boat Song" or snatches of Italian opera, when he first lands in America has not risen to a higher level when he learns to enjoy jazz and the blues. Better an old Spanish serenade played by a Mexican sheepherder in Arizona or New Mexico or even "Sweet Adeline" sung by a male quartette, than the sickly sentiment of the crooner.

When a Swedish-born Chicago citizen spends \$250,000 in reproducing an ancient Chinese temple in Boston, and then directs the archeologist who inspired the idea, to build another one in Chicago, he leads the way to a higher level of taste and appreciation, than is represented by a nationwide sale of imitation Satsuma or Cloisonne stamped "made in Japan" without the completing statement which is in the mind of the Japanese who made it—"made in Japan but only for sale in America."

Among the most powerful factors which make for a higher social level in America today, are the public art collections provided by men and women of wealth and culture; the broadcasting of symphony and grand opera by national advertisers who have not yet lost confidence in popular taste; the insistence by the American Federation of Labor upon a public education which over and beyond vocational training, will teach a love of the beautiful and insure an unembarrassed and unembarrassing participation in the finer phases of social life; and—the most fundamental factor of the four—the emphasis of literature, the fine arts, and training in good manners and social usages, which narrow minded taxpayers are even now seeking to exclude from public-school instruction.

The whole social level of democracy is leveled down, to the extent to which each American citizen is not a gentleman.

Whatever the land or the nationality from which he or his forefathers came to our shores, he should contribute to the land of his adoption what is finest in the life and the culture of the country and the people which he left behind. He will not be unembarrassed and unembarrassing if he is not suffi-

ciently practised in the use and unhesitating choice of correct grammatical forms. However socially experienced he may be, he may occasionally fail to use the right fork or spoon unless he keeps his eye upon the more significant movements of an ambitious and original hostess. But he must with an unvarying wish to be pleasing to others, at least live up to the code of courtesy adopted some years ago by Chicago high-school boys and girls. He must be interested in what interests others and learn to play the games which others play. He must come increasingly into those finer tastes and appreciations by which men who are human and humane have come to measure the progress of civilization.

These are only a few of the things which it is the function of education to teach, if the democracy which we now possess is to grow into a democracy which is more complete.

When I attempt to gauge our development—in spite of many an individual failing and national fault, and in the face of what reformers and students of civil government have called the breakdown of democracy in our great cities—even in the midst of alarms, I am heartened by an optimism which comes from familiarity with our national history and pride in the strength and the courage with which we have weathered every storm.

When I feel discouraged at our incompleteness and inequalities, there always comes to my mind the rejoinder of the young foreign-born American when I complained of a breach of good manners in a railroad car and deplored the lack of the truer and finer democracy of which it was a sign. "After all," he exclaimed, "ought we not to be very proud of the fact that we have more of it than any other people?"

Sometime or other in the history of every people there comes a gigantic catastrophe or an extraordinary prosperity which constitutes the crucial test not only of its form of government but of its national spirit and the civilization which is its highest expression. Both in prosperity and catastrophe our democracy, even in its incompleteness, has so far seen us thru. We are already democratic enough for democracy to endure. We still must learn how to be democratic enough for democracy to grow. To teach us this, is the most characteristic function of education in a democracy.

THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL MEETS THE EMERGENCY

CASSIE F. ROYS, MEMBER OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, DEPARTMENT OF
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS; AND PRINCIPAL, WALNUT
HILL SCHOOL, OMAHA, NEBR.

During the past twelve or thirteen years, there has been rapid growth in the development of the elementary-school principalship. The wide expansion of our public-school program during these prosperous years demanded leadership in the field of elementary education. This demand for leadership called for professional preparation, sympathetic understanding, and a personal enthusiasm. The elementary-school principal assumed this leadership.

Now that the prosperous days are no more and we are facing a crisis in education, the demand for intelligent professional leadership and service is stronger than ever. These difficult days do not find the elementary-school principal unprepared. His previous training and preparation have made it possible for him to meet this emergency with poise, with unflinching courage, with skill and initiative thru four different fields of service.

In the first field, he finds it necessary to exercise and promote the strictest economy in the administration of his school, on account of reduced revenue; in the second field, thru public relations with his community, he is the interpreter of the program and policy of his school, so that the laymen will know what the school is doing and why; in the third field, on account of so much unemployment, the problem of public welfare becomes a very serious one; in the fourth field, it is the duty of the principal to maintain the morale of his teaching staff.

APPLYING ETHICS TO ECONOMICS

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This address will be a discussion of four propositions, as follows: 1. The present abnormal economic conditions and detrimental maladjustments signify a breakdown in our economic system. 2. The main cause of the economic breakdown and resultant suffering and distress has been the violation of ethical principles or natural economic laws. 3. Certain ethical principles must be applied in our economic system in order to rehabilitate it and make it work. 4. The public mind must be informed of the evils of the present system of economics, and our collective conscience must be aroused to correct them by the application of ethical principles.

1. *The present abnormal economic conditions and detrimental maladjustments signify a breakdown in our economic system.*

In this land of intelligent, ambitious, and energetic people, of bounteous natural resources, and of untold reserves of power, a feeling of economic insecurity and dread of the future exists too generally among the people.

In this very city, while Big Business proudly points to the gigantic Exposition celebrating a Century of Progress, teachers whose instruction produced the progress of the century go unpaid and destitute.

In this commercial community, where hundreds of millions of now vanished dollars were invested in certain holding companies based only upon the imagination of a great exploiter, and where it is alleged that millions of other dollars are being collected in overcharges by two or three of the constituent companies, nearly a million unemployed and poverty-stricken people have for over a year been fed at public expense.

While dairy farmers in their desperation pour cheap milk into sewers, and wheat farmers feed their product to hogs, the plaintive voices of weak and hungry children beg their sorrowing mothers for bread and milk.

While millions of bushels of corn, lacking a market, are rotting in Illinois cribs or are being burned as fuel in Iowa stoves, millions of unemployed men and their families are being doled out a scanty allowance of food by public or private charity, altho these men would rather work to earn their food by making the things the farmers need and want and would buy if they could sell their corn above the cost of production.

There are gigantic reserves of gold and enormous bank deposits in America, but there is also an alarming and paralyzing shortage of money in circulation. Hundreds of banks have failed, thousands have closed their doors for a time, and many have been bolstered up with public funds raised by taxation.

Great factories stand silent and motionless and their smokestacks point to the unstained sky like monuments to a former period of prosperity, while ten million people are unemployed and these and other millions desire and need manufactured products.

Bankers, railroad presidents, and other business men organize to oppose taxation and to beat down the cost of education, and at the same time they demand of the government financial aid raised by taxation in order to save their banks, railroads, and business. One banker, who has little patience with teachers who insist upon being paid for their services, recently obtained about \$90,000,000 of such public funds to prop up his tottering financial throne.

It now appears that some of the great men who have been held up to the admiring youth of this country as the very personification of patriotism, power, profits, riches, and income, have not paid any income tax *in this country* for two or three years, while others who have a hard time to meet their bills have paid, and now by comparison feel like bloated plutocrats.

Altho this nation is called a great democracy and the land of equal opportunity, there are the widest possible differences in the possession of property and the greatest inequalities in the distribution of wealth. In *The Coming of a New Party*, Paul Douglas says: "Some years ago, Dr. W. I. King, after conducting a careful investigation, concluded that 2 percent of the population owned 60 percent of the wealth, leaving 98 percent of the people to get along with 40 percent of the wealth. A more recent investigation by the Federal Trade Commission over a wider field has shown that his figures underestimate the degree of concentration which exists. In 1918 the National Bureau of Economic Research estimated that 70 percent of all incomes above \$2,000 went to 2 percent of the income recipients."

In *Fighting Business Depressions* Roger Babson, the great financial writer, declares: "Great inequalities continue to exist under capitalism. It is said that 70 percent of those dying every year do not leave property enough to have their estates probated. A study of income tax returns shows that about 5 percent of the people of this country own over 80 percent of the country's wealth. Furthermore, such study seems to indicate a constantly increasing concentration of both income and property, in the hands of a smaller percentage."

Harry Elmer Barnes, in *Can Man Be Civilized?*, makes these comparisons:

Year	Annual Incomes		
	Over \$5,000,000	Over \$1,000,000	Over \$100,000
1921.....	6	21	2,352
1929.....	36	504	14,701

“The total income of these 504 super-millionaires in 1929 was \$1,185,135,000, giving an average of over \$2,300,000 proving that there must have been some vast incomes to bring the average up to this point. In 1928, 15,780 persons out of 120,000,000 received one-eighth of the total national income.”

There is much evidence that the amount of money income or property possessions bears little relation to productive labor or other real service to society. In fact there are glaring examples of people rendering useful or necessary service and receiving very little remuneration, while others whose methods and activities are predatory rather than useful reap large financial gains. Some perform slavish toil for almost nothing, and others reap riches by easy and questionable practises.

So we are again reminded of what an American philosopher, Henry George, in *Progress and Poverty*, realized over 50 years ago: “Everywhere the increasing intensity of the struggle to live, the increasing necessity for straining every nerve to prevent being thrown down and trodden underfoot in the scramble for wealth, is draining the forces which gain and maintain improvements. Civilization has begun to wane when, in proportion to population, we build more and more prisons, more and more almshouses, more and more insane asylums.”

Poverty amid plenty; starvation surrounded by surpluses; penury among people having powers of production; pauperism and prosperity; poorhouses and pampered plutocrats; men and money, machines and materials in superabundance, but all idle while millions need and desire what they could produce; teachers without salary rendering society a necessary service in a city boasting of its wealth and a Century of Progress—these inconsistent conditions, incompatible practises, and incongruous or conflicting rules of the game have produced such serious maladjustments in our economic system that it is wrecked and there is much distress and suffering among our people.

2. *The main cause of the economic breakdown and resultant suffering and distress has been the violation of ethical principles or natural economic laws.*

Expressed in general terms, the economic sin now bringing its retribution is parasitism, or the practise of living, possibly luxuriously, upon the labor of others. This is nothing new, since it was old in 1858 when Abraham Lincoln said: “It is the eternal struggle between the two principles, right and wrong, thruout the world. They are the two principles that have stood face to face from the beginning of time. The one is the common right of humanity, the other the divine right of kings. It is the same principle in

whatever shape it develops itself. It is the same spirit that says, 'You toil and work and earn bread, and I'll eat it.' " In these words, Lincoln clearly stated that economic parasitism is wrong, or is a violation of a principle of ethics.

Or we can go back still farther. In fact every great moral leader held in respect by the people denounced parasitism—for instance, Jesus, Moses, Buddha. Sir Edwin Arnold, in *The Light of Asia*, tells us that when the last-named was a young man known as Prince Siddartha, son of the king of a state of India, the king one day took him to the fields and woods to show him the beauties of nature, the works of man, and the glories of his kingdom. As the king proudly pointed to these things and eloquently proclaimed their beauties and benefits, the prince was at first impressed by the materialistic ideals of his father:

But looking deep he saw
The thorns which grow upon this tree of life;
How the swart peasant sweated for his wage,
Toiling for leave to live; and how he urged
The great-eyed oxen thru the flaming hours,
Goading their velvet flanks; then marked he too,
How lizard fed on ant, and snake on him,
And kite on both; and how the fish-hawk robbed
The fish-tiger of that which it had seized;
The shrike chasing the bulbul, which did chase
The jewelled butterflies; till everywhere
Each slew a slayer and in turn was slain,
Life living upon death. So the fair show
Veiled one vast, savage, grim conspiracy
Of mutual murder, from the worm to man,
Who himself kills his fellow; seeing which
The hungry ploughman and his laboring kine,
Their dewlaps blistered with the bitter yoke,
The rage to live which makes all living strike—
The Prince Siddartha sighed, "Is this," he said,
"That happy earth they brought me forth to see?
How salt with sweat the peasant's bread! How fierce
The war of weak and strong! In the air what plots!
No refuge e'en in water. Go aside
A space, and let me muse on what you show."
So saying the good Lord Buddha seated him
Under a jambu tree, with ankles crossed
As holy statues sit; and first began
To meditate the deep disease of life,
What its far source, and when its remedy.

It seems that the same thorns are still growing on the tree of life, and that we are still asking, "Whence the remedy for this deep disease of life?," otherwise known as selfishness and greed, which causes business in its economic strife to revert to the law of the jungle, the observation of which, about 500 B. C., was the initial inspiration to Prince Siddartha to become Buddha.

But let us see what reputable writers of the present day say on this subject, specifically in relation to our present economic crisis. W. H. Kilpatrick,

in *Education and the Social Crisis*, says: "We forget that 'success' under the new conditions is generally if not necessarily based upon a real exploitation of many others." He says also: "The more we study speculation and its schemes of promotion, the harder it is to draw any satisfactory line between speculation and speculative promotion on the one hand, and racketeering on the other. Each is trying to get something for nothing. . . . Getting something for nothing at the expense of others is socially evil and wrong, however it is named."

Henry S. Dennison, in *Ethics and Modern Business*, refers to the unethical practises of business as follows: "In the course of its history business has had a lurid variety of standards of behavior; and sometimes it has had none at all—not even the rather elusive brand called 'honor among thieves.'" Ernest D. MacDougall, in *Crime for Profit*, puts it this way: "What is it that leads otherwise honorable and respected bankers and brokers to abuse the power intrusted confidently to their hands by an unsuspecting public? The answer is: Avarice, covetousness, cupidity, greed." And again the same author says: "Some say the industrial depression is the inevitable result of 'cycles' of business—a sort of seasonable recurrence—or, maybe, a freak of nature. It is nothing of the sort! It is the result of criminal acts committed by our leading bankers and brokers." John T. Flynn, in *Graft in Business*, says: "I am in no great state of agitation over the operations of the financial outlaw. His peculations are small compared with the huge losses inflicted upon investors by gentlemen who occupy positions of trust in our social organization."

The unethical exploiters have various ways of collecting for their own use the earnings of others. For instance, one of the simplest ways is to reduce workers' wages far below their actual earnings and barely above minimum subsistence, and at the same time appropriate to themselves enormous salaries, dividends, and bonuses. This practise and its evil results are mentioned by an eminent sociologist, Cecil Clare North, in *Social Problems and Social Planning*, as follows: "We permit such a large share of the returns of manufacturing establishments to be taken in profits that these profits are expended in expanding the equipment of the plants to three or four times the size that can be utilized. And at the same time we permit the employer to pay such a low wage that the workers cannot buy enough of the products of the plants to keep them running." Thus we see that we all suffer together when the greed of capitalists ruins their market by the expansion of their plants to produce goods instead of expanding the purchasing power of the workers to buy goods. When the markets are ruined, men and machines are both idle, and capital and labor both suffer. Some believe this to have been one of the main causes of the great depression.

We quote Ella Wheeler Wilcox who, over thirty years ago, in *Poems of Power*, expressed herself concerning the evils of machine multiplication and monopoly:

Said the great machine of iron and wood,
 "Lo, I am a creature meant for good.
 But the criminal clutch of a Godless greed

Has made me a monster that scatters need
And want and hunger wherever I go.
I would lift men's burdens and lighten their woe,
I would give them leisure to laugh in the sun,
If owned by the Many, instead of the one.

"If owned by the people, the whole wide earth
Should learn my purpose and know my worth.
I would close the chasm that yawns in our soil
'Twixt unearned riches and ill-paid toil,
No man should hunger, and no man labor
To fill the purse of an idle neighbor;
And each should know when his work was done,
Were I shared by the Many, not owned by one.

"I am forced by the few, with their greed for gain,
To forge for the many new fetters of pain.
Yet this is my purpose, and ever will be,
To set the slaves of the workshop free.
God hasten the day when, overjoyed,
That desperate host of the unemployed
Shall hear my message and understand,
And hail me friend in an opulent land."

Lack of time forbids a discussion of all the unethical practises in the economic field. We shall merely mention an additional two or three, as follows: obtaining control of government by means of large campaign contributions to candidates and support of candidates by propaganda thru a subservient press; a form of bribery by the sale of stock at less than its market value to men of power and influence in politics; high pressure sales of stocks and bonds to the public at much more than they are worth; forcing bonded properties into receiverships for the purpose of looting them; dodging taxes by means of "fixed" assessments, false affidavits, political influence, or tax strikes, thereby shifting to others the cost of the government that protects the lives, property, and business of all—in fact, any practise that enables any individual or company to obtain money, service, or property without a fair compensating return.

In this connection, and to teachers paid by public taxation, we cannot refrain from comparing taxation for public benefits with levying tribute for private gain. Business men in the very highest strata of commerce, industry, banking, and other economic institutions presume to criticize the cost of the schools and other public institutions, altho they certainly know that it has *not* been taxation to pay for public service that has wrecked our economic system so much as it has been the levying of tribute on the public by powerful predatory individuals and corporations. Midwest Securities and similar companies have done far more damage to the economic system of Chicago than has taxation for school purposes. The exploiter's dollar was stolen, but the school dollar purchased a necessary service. Insull extortions left wreckage, distress, ruin, and rancor in their wake; school revenues produced information, constructive thought, ideals, character, hope, and patriotism in a genera-

tion of young people. Therefore, a fair consideration of both the amounts collected and the results produced forces us to the conclusion that enforced tribute for private gain is much more costly to the people than taxation for public purposes.

The following quotation is from *Outlines of Sociology*, by Blackmar and Gillin: "While it is generally conceded that political and civil government should be carried on for the mutual benefit of all members of society, the theory that a man has a right to accumulate and use wealth as he pleases, regardless of the wellbeing of others, has permitted the perpetuation of ancient forms of piracy and brigandage under new forms of industrial life, which men excuse by calling them 'business.' "

3. *Certain ethical principles must be applied in our economic system in order to rehabilitate it and make it work.*

Too many people seem to believe that the principles of ethics or morals are to be applied only to personal affairs, such as one's thoughts, whether pure or impure; to one's language, whether reverent or profane; to one's sex desires and habits, whether conventional or otherwise; and to such matters as have little social significance.

In the last fifty years of rapid development of the industrial and commercial interests of the great corporations, Americans have accepted the principle of laissez faire to such a large degree that until recently few questions were asked as to whether the decisions and practises of business men were right or wrong. Commerce and industry seemed not at all concerned with ethics, and seemed to believe that business and ethics have little relation to each other. It seemed to be accepted that "business is business," and that ethical principles could not be applied to it.

Cecil Clare North, in *Social Problems and Social Planning*, rather cynically states the situation in these words: "Self-reliance, competitive prowess, frugality, 'rugged individualism' are the traits still held up for admiration in the pulpit, in the popular magazine, and in the injunctions of statesmen. The individual who can, unaided, plow thru heavy difficulties and win individual success is the popular hero. And in forcing his lone way to personal achievement, he need not be overscrupulous about the rights and feelings of others who may be in his way. The domineering, exploitive, fighting individual who aims at something he wants and rides over all others in attaining his goal is forgiven his disregard for others. The only thing that is not forgiven is failure to reach his goal. At the same time, ability to cooperate with others, willingness to sacrifice some personal prejudice or individual advantage for the sake of the group, a recognition of the common good as of more importance than individual success, these moral traits which are so greatly needed in modern life have not yet been elevated to a position of prominence in our moral teaching."

However, we notice that this author, in the latter part of the paragraph quoted, does name some ethical practises which he evidently believes ought to be adopted. And both he and other writers in the recent trying times are more positive and optimistic in some of their statements. For instance, this

same sociologist says: "Without effective control of competition there is no guarantee that the awards shall be on the basis of services rendered. Society has always had some sort of regulation of competition; and in recent years considerable additions have been made in this direction. It remains to push the principle much farther than it has yet gone. One objective of the efforts to adjust culture to presentday needs is a society that places its primary emphasis on cooperative rather than upon competitive effort."

In *Fighting Business Depressions* Roger Babson says: "Equality, either in income or in property, will probably never be possible; but such malignant inequalities as now exist must be remedied. Poverty means unsanitary living conditions which develop unwholesome fear, and a pinched life which is unsuitable for a parent of the next generation. Jesus said, 'I am come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly.' Surely this thought should encourage every movement to make a healthier, happier, and more prosperous people."

John T. Flynn puts it this way in *Graft in Business*: "Business must do a great deal to clean its own house, to set up ethical standards that are couched not in general terms, but aim directly at the specific vices which are so well known. In addition to this, the subject, at least in a nation like ours, should get some treatment in our schools. This is a task for educators. I offer no suggestions as to how it ought to be approached, but content myself with laying the problem on the doorsteps of our schools and their rulers."

W. E. Creed, who is advising business men how to save themselves and their business from the wreck, says in *Safeguarding the Future of Private Business*: "At all times, the business man must be conscious of his obligations to help right what seems wrong or in the light of more knowledge may hereafter seem wrong. The safeguards of the future of private business are the men in its ranks who believe its fundamental purpose is to serve society; who are conscious of their duty to keep its tendencies; who give their best energy and devotion to bring about positive accomplishment in the public interest; who are frank with the public, and can, without fear, let the public know what they are doing and why."

When we study the present practises in the economic world and observe their social results, we are forced to conclude that many such practises are unethical, since they are harmful to society. And now appear many critics of such practises who agree that our sick society can be cured only by the application of ethical principles to economic activities. The remedies recommended are such old-fashioned social virtues as honesty, justice or fair play, cooperation, service, altruism, and equality.

Men engaged in big business affairs must practise the same *honesty* that is considered necessary among neighbors; they must not resort to tricks nor take advantage of the weakness or ignorance of others to make unearned profits for themselves.

The rules of the economic game must be based upon justice and must be carried out in such a spirit of fair play and good sportsmanship as will cause

any player to spurn opportunities to advance his own interests at the expense of others.

The cooperation of altruistic individuals must characterize our business affairs, rather than the fierce, junglelike competition of an unrestrained "rugged individualism."

The spirit of service must direct the purposes and practises of our captains of industry and kings of commerce. They must be willing or must be forced to render to society a service as nearly as possible equal in value to the financial fruits they gather from society.

All Americans must remember that the fundamental principle upon which our institutions are based is equality. The very birth cry of our nation announced to the world the self-evident truth that "all men are created equal." This does not mean equality of talents, abilities, or other innate or acquired personal qualities. Neither does it mean exact equality of possessions. But it does mean equality of rights and opportunities, and therefore, no special privileges; it means equality of duties, responsibilities, and service in proportion to abilities; and it means equality of compensation from society in proportion to services rendered to society.

Some people may say that all this is but an idle dream, and that business has nothing in common with ethics, altruism, or humanitarianism. Let us remind such people that the violation of ethical principles certainly had something to do with the breakdown of the economic system; and that, therefore, we are proposing to remedy conditions by the application of ethics. If capitalistic business does not become more righteous, it will suffer total collapse.

Harry Elmer Barnes, in *Can Man Be Civilized?*, says: "If capital will not come to terms with the humanitarians, its leaders may, in the not distant future, have to reckon mainly with those who have as little regard for the principles of industrial capitalism as the capitalists now have for the essentials of humanitarianism."

William C. Redfield in *Have We Kept the Faith* by Prosser and Allen, is quoted as follows: "There is no righteousness and there will be no peace growing out of partiality and special privilege. The way to crime and chaos lies plainly in the exploitation of our men and women as if they were coal or oil. In our free America there must be industrial and social freedom."

4. *The public mind must be informed of the evils of the present system of economics and our collective conscience must be aroused to correct them by the application of ethical principles.*

In harmony with the American philosophy of equality, there should be a general diffusion among the people of the knowledge, the ethics of justice, the idealism, and the spirit that will make other forms of equality actual and effective, including equality in the application of ethical principles to all our human activities and relations.

Such diffusion is in part the work of teachers, since they are teachers and molders of the minds of youth. *Teachers must have a real understanding of*

the wrongs in recent economic practises, a burning zeal to correct them, and an abiding faith in the ultimate triumph of justice.

W. H. Kilpatrick says in *Education and the Social Crisis*: "Must they not—teachers as well as others—so burn with conviction in season and out to tear down the selfish tradition and build instead the needed tradition of supreme allegiance to the common good? If I really have convictions that matter to me, I cannot possibly teach independently of them. They are an essential part of me."

In *The Great Technology* Harold Rugg says: "More than all else we need to instil attitudes of integrity and courage in teachers. Perhaps the greatest need today is courage. Courage to combat the prevailing culture of dishonesty, the widespread mood for getting something for nothing, the flagrant temper of hypocrisy. Courage to introduce youth to an honest, clear understanding of our modern economic and social system. Courage to dig to the very roots of controversial issues. Courage to live only one's own personal life as an individual of integrity."

Thus do these authors emphasize the need of teaching both the youth and the adults of this country the ethics of economics.

In order to assist even the zealous teachers to perform this function properly, it may be necessary to revise the curriculums of our schools. This does not mean necessarily that new subjects must be introduced, but that emphasis be shifted and redistributed to make more prominent the social studies and to make more effective the teaching of good citizenship, moral training, and an aggressive defense of justice in the light of the lessons drawn from our recent bitter experiences. The Committee on Social-Economic Goals might well be succeeded by a committee to revise the curriculum and devise methods of teaching to enable the generation now in school to reach those goals.

Teachers must prepare themselves and the public to accept a greater degree of industrial and economic planning and control than we have heretofore had for the advancement of the general welfare. We have reached the stage in the evolution of our economic system where we are compelled to abandon the theory of free competition, laissez-faire, and "rugged" individualism and turn to a definitely planned economic system based upon the general welfare, which means upon genuinely ethical principles. As Rugg says: "An interdependent economic and political system must be designed. It is now axiomatic that the production and distribution of goods can no longer be left to the vagaries of chance—specifically to the unbridled competitions of self-aggrandizing human nature."

Kilpatrick puts it this way: "The people of this country must recognize the economic and social facts and *plan* accordingly. Must we not first of all see to it that our inclusive economic machine shall in fact work—not break down every few years? And even more if possible must we not further see to it that our industry be not a mere Juggernaut machine, but a system—a consciously managed system—which shall work for the welfare of all?"

But whether we revert to the old form of capitalism or turn to a new form of controlled industry and managed economics, it will be necessary to adapt the system to the principles of ethics. Otherwise under any system the unrestrained greedy will lap up all the cream, and leave honest people only a small amount of curds and whey. The masses of the people in the future should ask, and in our opinion will ask, "Is it right?" and they will mean, "Is it in accord with true principles of justice, and equity, and fair play?" In a word, "Is it truly democratic?"

Teachers should have a deep conviction that ethical principles must apply to all without discrimination. This is only another application of the American philosophy of equality, or democracy. It means simply that the acts of all must be in accordance with the rules of justice and fair play, whether they be rich or poor, high or low, humble workers or "go-getter" financiers, successful men or poverty-stricken failures. Too long have we tolerated economic practises by the high and mighty that have really been more harmful to the general welfare than similar practises by the poor and lowly, which we vigorously condemn or punish as crimes. Too long have we held up as models the rich exploiters and held in pity or contempt the real producer who is too honest to get rich.

The lazy or unfortunate man who "bums" his rides on freight cars and begs his food from door to door is scornfully called a bum, a hobo, or a tramp. But very few of us hold in equal contempt the gilded youth who tours the Mediterranean or the Caribbean on his private yacht with dissolute companions and luxurious food, drink, and equipment altho he is a more pernicious parasite than the tramp.

We very properly teach boys that it is wrong for them to play truant and then tell their parents they were at school and their teachers that they were at home; and the poor wretch who, on the witness stand, swears to a lie to save himself is guilty of perjury. But we tolerate the rich tax-dodger who swears to a false assessment schedule and thus robs many boys of their proper schooling; and nothing is done to punish the public utility officer who gives his property a high value on which to fix rates to charge customers and a much lower value on which to pay taxes.

The vile miscreant who works in the secrecy of his basement and makes bogus money is properly recognized as a criminal; and, if his crime is detected and proved, he is severely punished. But it seems that the public, at least in the past, has held in high esteem as a success and a pillar of society the great financial wizard who sells watered or bogus stock to the public at a great profit, and who himself collects dividends on watered stock, the value of which is based only upon his power to collect excessive and un-earned rates for service.

Recently a newspaper story held up to contempt both the Italian fruit vendor and the policeman concerned in a case where it was said the fruit vendor frequently gave fruit to the policeman to win special protection and privilege to use the streets without paying a license fee. This was called a mean type of bribery. But I could not help thinking of the more dangerous acts of the great corporation magnate who gave hundreds of thousands of

dollars to candidates for governor, senator, and other offices, when they needed the money for campaign funds.

Two high-school boys caught shooting craps in an alley recently were severely reprovèd—which we admit should have been done. But why should they not feel encouraged to gamble when their fathers and their fathers' neighbors are speculating or dealing in futures on the Stock Exchange or the Board of Trade?

The man who breaks into a bank or who takes from an individual \$1000 is a thief, and if caught is sent to the penitentiary. But the man who by legalized privilege or by unfair manipulation of our economic machinery levies an unearned tribute of say ten cents on each of our 120,000,000 people and thus "makes" \$12,000,000, is considered a success, and a model to hold up to our youth.

If some sneaking pickpocket finds you in a crowd, slips his hand into your pocket, and takes your purse, you consider him a most disreputable criminal. But some of our most eminent and "respectable" citizens have been promoting the sale of stock of corporations, holding companies, and super-holding companies at much more than it is worth. Which is really the dangerous pickpocket?

Not long ago I heard an orator give as an example of cowardice a young man who trembled and grew faint in the face of gun-fire in battle. But how about the great super-patriot and former chairman of the Illinois State Council of Defense, who stayed safe on this side of the Atlantic in time of the Great War and plead with our young men to go across; and then, after the war was all over and the officers of the law wanted him here, he fled across the Atlantic and took refuge in Greece, but continues to draw a pension paid by users of American utility service?

The man who gives aid and comfort to our enemies in time of war is guilty of treason and is severely punished if convicted. But even greater damage has been done to our government by the people who fight against proper taxation, build up resistance to necessary taxation, and thus break down our government and its institutions; or by the great banker who sells his stock holdings to his wife at a great loss in order to evade paying income taxes, knowing that he could have back or profit by those stocks at any time he desired.

We are taught to fear and hate the disreputable thug who jumps from an alley and grabs ladies' handbags, or the thief who breaks into our house at night and carries off our valuables. But now it seems that the real danger to society has been the bankers who have been speculating with other people's money, and that the most contemptible highwaymen are the bankers who beat down the price of tax anticipation warrants held by teachers and then have their brokers purchase such warrants for them to hold to make large profits.

Therefore, we may conclude with MacDougall, in *Crime for Profit*, that "crimes of the upper-world, such as business frauds and financial swindles,

committed by men who move in respectable circles of society, are as dangerous to society as the cruder forms of crime, and even more so."

Our standards of righteousness must be raised, our concepts of success must be modified, and our application of ethical principles must be general. Teachers must develop a passion for fair play and an enthusiasm for teaching the real ethics of economics. They must see clearly that anyone who gets money or service from others without fully earning it is a thief, no matter how high his social standing; and that anyone who earns money or service without getting it is cheated or robbed. When the great majority of teachers reach this stage of ethical and professional development, our economic problems will be on the way to solution, and our maladjustments will gradually disappear. If the masses of the people will accept and act upon this principle, all will have plenty, no one will be in want, and nobody will have great unearned superfluities. When service, instead of privilege or unfair methods, is accepted as the only proper measure of our possessions, they will more nearly approach equality.

Too long have the molders of the public mind accepted the ideals and practises of the exploiters as being right, or at least as not being improper and dangerous to the public welfare. Predatory business has had ways and means of directing the public mind as it chose, and of making it unpleasant for teachers, preachers, editors, and others who taught the sinfulness of unearned profits and unfair exploitation. And too many teachers have looked upon "successful" business men as guides for themselves and models for their pupils. But the present crisis and the lessons we are learning from it are teaching us that from now on we teachers ought to ally ourselves with the workers and producers rather than with the idlers and exploiters. We are but workers or servants in the employ of the public, and should sympathize with all other workers. Our welfare depends upon the welfare of other workers; our economic problems are the same as those of other workers; and we must work with other workers in solving those problems. *We ought to strive to elevate the producing proletariat into comfort, culture, and plenty, rather than to hope to elevate ourselves into the exploiting aristocracy.* The one is socially ethical and constructive, and the other is individually selfish and demoralizing.

According to John T. Flynn, in *Graft in Business*: "No good purpose is to be served by the incessant fawning and laudation of business and business men which is indulged in, not so much by business men themselves as by those parasitic gentlemen of the quill and cloth and the academy who have invented a form of graft of their own, and who, not having the talent for making money for themselves, find a way to feather their nests by fawning on the able and practical men who do know how to make it. Most of the silly adulation of modern business honesty has come from writers and preachers and professors."

Teachers who see the vision of universal justice, who become inspired by ideals of righteousness, who consecrate their energies to the establishment and the practise of ethical principles in men's economic relations are really

promoting the principles enunciated by the great teachers of the ages. They are teaching a modern and necessary application of the Mosaic law thundered forth from Mt. Sinai: "Thou shalt not steal; thou shalt not covet what is thy neighbor's." They are teaching the ethical principle expressed by the Great Teacher, and so characteristic of His rules of social conduct as to be called the Golden Rule: "All things whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so to them." They are in perfect harmony with the very first principle of our nation: "We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Such teachers are the most effective supporters of our Constitution; for they are training a generation of citizens "to form a more perfect union, to establish justice, to insure domestic tranquility, to provide for the common defense, to promote the general welfare, and to secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

EDUCATION AND THE PUBLIC MIND

ROBERT HUTCHINS, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

Your president some months ago asked me to speak about the depression. Now that the depression is over, I am deprived of a subject. Anybody but a university president would make this statement and sit down. This neither my personal habits nor my professional status will permit. Since I have you here I shall say a few words, not about California, or even about the University of Chicago, but about Education and the Public Mind. Perhaps the Public Mind involves a degree of flattery. Perhaps I should say the Public Temper. At any rate I propose to discuss the public attitude toward education, to suggest what is responsible for it, and to indicate what may be done about it.

We have been passing thru the first serious mass attack on the American educational system. In the past, as has been frequently remarked, education has been the American substitute for a national religion. But almost at once when this depression started, the onslaught on education began. Of course, salaries were reduced, school terms were shortened, school buildings postponed. These things are comprehensible, if not intelligent. What is less easy to understand is the readiness of our people to withhold salaries when earned, to regard demands for them as extortion, and to deliver themselves of extended orations on frills in education. I have never been able to discover what a frill is. Apparently it is something that is good for the child, and good for society, but which the school was not able to do fifty years ago. On this theory Mr. Roosevelt's recovery program might be called a frill in government. Certainly the responsibilities now laid upon the schools are such that an attempt to meet them with the three R's would be as futile as trying to deal with the economic situation with the slogans of Harding and Coolidge.

The attacks that I have mentioned have been partly led by selfish groups: by people who wanted their taxes reduced irrespective of the needs of the community, by people who had never attended the public schools and who could afford to send their children to private establishments. Thru their control of part of the press and other avenues of propaganda they have succeeded in convincing some unselfish people that the educational system is an inflated extravagant colossus, instead of being, as I shall show later, an organization entirely too restricted for the needs of the present day.

The attacks of selfish groups can be understood and combatted. They are not so serious and so discouraging as a certain unconsciousness of education which has lately been exhibited by our most able and disinterested leaders. The Couzens bill, which almost passed at the last regular session of Congress, was an unkind cut; for its author in his laudable desire to provide for the wandering youth of our country could think of nothing better to do with them than to put them in army camps. The possibility of offering them educational opportunities apparently never occurred to him. And so with all the earnest effort to care for the unemployed, adolescent and adult, it has never been suggested that the best investment we could make would be to put them in school. With billions appropriated for dams, trees, roads, postoffices, courthouses, and even warships, not a word has been said about schools, schools the construction of which would provide as much construction as battleships, if construction is what you want; schools which might eventually give us an intelligent nation. The lamentable consequences of stupidity and ignorance are visible everywhere about us. You would have supposed that one result of our recent experiences would have been a determination on the part of our people to establish an educational system that would teach us how to be wiser in the future. On the contrary, amid all the talk of public works and reemployment, education has not been mentioned; and in all the expenditures for banks, railroads, and public works not one cent has been put forward for education. We expect to be fought by our enemies; it is hard to be ignored by our friends.

At the same time our friends and enemies have presented us with burdens that would have overwhelmed us in the best of times. They have thrown some millions of young people out of work and denied employment to some millions more. These young people have become our problem at the very moment when those who presented them to us were depriving us of the means of helping them. Praiseworthy efforts to restrict child labor as proposed, for example, in the new textile code, will make our task more difficult; and that task is to take care in some way or other of the enormous number of boys and girls between 14 and 20 who have been ejected from industry or who have not been permitted to enter it. I do not need to tell you that the most baffling question with which the high school has had to deal in the last three years has been the question of the high-school graduate. Cut off from earning a living, he has clamored for more education, and the high school has had to try to give it to him, in spite of overcrowded buildings and inadequate

funds. The makeshifts resorted to have been unsatisfactory; we must develop permanent measures.

Another obligation that the educational system must assume is the obligation of adult education. This is a vast uncharted area that has as yet been scarcely touched. As long as we could delude ourselves into thinking that everybody was working twelve hours a day we could believe that this problem could be left to a few well-intentioned social workers who could handle it as a side issue. Now that we may be sure that the six-hour day and the five-day week are coming, we may be equally confident that we cannot dodge the problem of adult education.

Whether we like it or not, therefore, we must accommodate the young people of the country up to their eighteenth or twentieth year; industry will not absorb them earlier. We shall also be compelled to organize the leisure time of the bulk of our population from the end of school onward. This is an educational problem; we shall be held responsible for its solution. And the atmosphere in which we must conduct these enterprises is one of hostility and indifference.

What is the explanation of this atmosphere? Partly, I have no doubt, it is that laissez-faire economics which the nineteenth century left us and which could tolerate nothing unless it paid. Even public works, then and even in the last administration, could be undertaken only on a "self-liquidating" basis. A society which will not create tangible assets unless it can get 6 percent and its money back can hardly be expected to show enthusiasm for an undertaking the results of which are impossible to translate into financial terms.

But I believe that the responsibility for our present plight must rest after all on us. It is our fault. I do not sustain the charges made by illiterate sections of the press; we have not been extravagant or silly. But because of the rapidity with which we have had to develop popular education for a tremendous nation we have not had time to think what we were doing. How could we expect the public to understand it? The layman cannot comprehend what an elementary school is, what a high school is, what a college is, or what a university is, and we can make only the feeblest efforts to illuminate him because we are confused ourselves.

The elementary schools cover eight years for no better reason than that Horace Mann, when he went to Germany to find a school to imitate, imitated the wrong one, and imposed on this country as a preparatory unit a school that was terminal in its native land. The high schools are largely dominated by collegiate requirements that have no application to the majority of their students. The junior colleges are frequently two years more of high school or pale imitations of the first two years at the state university. The colleges of liberal arts sometimes seem to duplicate the high school at one end and the university at the other. The universities are weird mixtures of general education, specialized study, professional training, and college life. If we are ever to alter the public attitude toward education we must

clarify the functions of all these organizations and their relationships to one another.

The object of a university is the advancement of knowledge. It has no interest in education except as it contributes to this end. It may therefore properly carry on two types of educational activity: investigation of the educational process, and the education of people to advance knowledge. "Education for citizenship," for example, has no place in a university except as a subject of study.

Unless a university is interested in educational experiment it should abandon its freshman and sophomore years. The work of these years should be conducted by numerous local institutions. They must be numerous because they will be instruments of popular education, which the university is not. They must be local because most of their students will not be able to meet the cost of living away from home.

What will happen in any such division of labor to the colleges of liberal arts? Many of them will abandon their junior and senior years. But many others will find a place which cannot be filled by any other organization. They can develop a three-year curriculum beginning with the junior year and leading to the Master's degree, a curriculum of non-professional specialization in arts, literature, and science. I am clear that such a course of study can be given far better by a strong college of liberal arts than by a university, the atmosphere of which should be scholarly and professional from the junior year on.

Having clarified the function of the university and the college of liberal arts let us examine further the numerous local institutions to which I have referred. Certainly they will not be intelligent if they give their attention primarily to preparing students for the universities. Most of their graduates will never reach them. They should direct their energies to the development of terminal work; they should prepare students "for life."

In setting out on such an enterprise they will find that a two-year organization which graduates 50 percent of its students every year cannot do for them what it ought to do. They will find that a three- or four-year period created by the union of the last years of high school and the first years of college is an admirable unit in which to administer education for life. And they will find that they cannot meet the needs of most of their students by giving them a purely cultural education. They or other institutions parallel with them must construct courses of study of a sub-professional business, technical, or homemaking variety to take care of the vast number of students who do not want and should not have a general education alone. General education should be the core of all education at this level; some institutions should be devoted to it exclusively. But these organizations are to be instruments of popular education. They must be open to everybody. They must avoid the temptation to pour everybody into the same mold. They must provide differentiated courses of study adapted to the needs and capacities of the individual.

We should thus have a terminal unit of three or four years beginning with the beginning of the junior year in high school and ending with the end of the sophomore year in college. It would supply the need for general and technical education for all our youth, and at the same time create new and important centers of adult education in our local communities. These collegiate and technical institutes would be parts of universities only if a given university wished to conduct studies in general and technical education for the benefit of institutions laboring in these fields.

Preparatory and definitely preparatory to these collegiate and technical institutes we should have the high school, a three- or four-year unit beginning with the seventh grade. There is no reason for perpetuating Horace Mann's mistake. It is now established that the work of the primary school can be accomplished in six years.

With a six-year elementary school, a three- or four-year secondary school, and three- or four-year collegiate and technical institutes we may hope to take care of the educational needs of our people thru their eighteenth or twentieth year. Each one of these institutions has a definite and distinctive function. Its performance can be tested in the light of its own ideals. The function of the university, the advancement of knowledge, is made equally clear, and the university is rid of obligations it had no business to assume. To confine myself to my own sector of the educational front, I venture to say that at present there is not a single university in the United States, not one, that is, that will answer to any rational definition of a university. I am inclined to think that the same situation obtains in those parts of the system with which I am less familiar. How can we hope to secure public support in the great tasks that lie ahead if we have not clear in our own minds what we are trying to do, and if when we have finished we cannot tell whether we have done it?

Local government in the United States requires radical revision. The system of taxation needs thoro overhauling. Schoolboards should be reconstructed or exterminated, and the schools should be taken out of politics. The relationship of federal, state, and local governments to education must be more adequately defined. But we as educators cannot demand these things on behalf of education unless we have a system that can be understood and defended. You will say that such a system as I have outlined will be enormously expensive and we cannot get the money for the one we have. My answer is that we cannot get the money for the one we have because it is a bewildering and incomprehensible maze. If we can present to the country an intelligible program we can get the money to support it. If we shrink from the task of clarification we may find taken away from us even that which we have.

EDUCATION, THE BASIS OF SELF-GOVERNMENT

HAROLD L. ICKES, SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

I was one of those fortunate persons who had the privilege in 1929 of being present in the stately and beautiful cathedral that is called a chapel at the University of Chicago when a young recruit from Yale was inaugurated as the youngest college president in the United States. Preceded in the ceremonies by the presidents of three great universities, one of them with a national reputation for wit and brilliance of speech, I found myself hoping that this young man might acquit himself worthily.

I was soon to discover that my concern should have been for the presidential elders instead of for the man in whose proper induction into high academic office we were so interested. Standing in front of a critical group of professors, facing the intellectual, the social, and the business leaders of Chicago, this outstanding addition to the citizenship of Chicago delighted his audience with as brilliant and charmingly phrased an address as anyone there had ever listened to. Clearly, logically, in precise and discriminating English, that most beautiful of all languages when it is in the hands of a master, he made an impression that cannot be forgotten. No one left the campus on that occasion doubting that the trustees of our great University had chosen wisely, or that under the able and vigorous leadership of Dr. Hutchins, new vistas of usefulness would be opened for an institution already numbered among the greatest of its kind in the world.

In telling less fortunate friends, who had not been able to hear President Hutchins that day, the impression that he had made, it never occurred to me even to harbor deep down in my consciousness the expectation that I would ever be placed in any situation where I would suffer by comparison with him. Nothing was further from my thoughts than that we would ever occupy the same platform in such circumstances as these.

Dr. Hutchins is qualified to speak to you. He is not only the head of a great institution of learning, but his very youth, taken in connection with his commanding position, bespeaks outstanding aptitude and unusual qualities of leadership in the educational field. Of the technical side of education I am as blissfully ignorant as the child who sits upon the dunce's stool, if that instrument of intimate, refined torture still exists in a schoolroom anywhere. I know as well as does anyone here that I was not asked to speak because I could add a single jot to the sum total of accumulated wisdom upon educational matters. I was graciously invited to come because, by a fortuitous circumstance, I am at the moment head of that department of our federal government within whose all-embracing arms is gathered the Office of Education, and within which there will shortly also be found the Board for Vocational Education.

But altho disclaiming any knowledge or even any opinion worth expressing on the technical side of education, I do have certain ideas about education in general and particularly about the value of education in a democracy. My views are not unique nor am I distinguished as the sole possessor of them.

What I think about education and its relationship to our political and social institutions I think in common with all citizens of our country who have any claim to be regarded as of at least average intelligence.

It seems so self-evident as hardly to be worth expressing that there is a direct relationship between education and government. We all know that we cannot hope to govern ourselves wisely unless we have at hand to use intelligences that have been trained by our study of the past to recognize the pitfalls of the present. Not even are we prepared for self-government unless our imaginations have been developed so that we can evoke a vision of the future.

If our form of government were an absolutism we would certainly wish our tyrant to be not only benevolent but educated. We would reason that holding our lives and our property in the palm of his hand to do with as a passing whim might dictate, we would be less likely to be the victims of a transient and obstinate passion if our tyrant knew something about the arts and the sciences and had been well grounded in history, literature, political economy, political science, and sociology. While during the past few years a stupid bleating has gone up from certain business men, and even from some supposed intellectual leaders, for a political dictator, none of them would willingly risk his welfare and happiness in the hands of a despot whose ignorance was as absolute as his power. And to that degree that mob ignorance with its potentialities of terror and destruction is more to be dreaded than ignorance on the part of an arbitrary ruler of men, is it the part of wisdom to expand the minds and train the intelligences of ourselves and our children if as a people we are to approach the task of self-government with even moderate assurance of our capacity for it?

Economically, we are sitting in sackcloth and ashes. Sobered by our fall from the height of an unlamented jazz age, we can now soberly, even if somewhat despairingly, take an inventory of our immediate past. It is, of course, not worth anyone's while to cry over spilt milk but it is not out of place to consider how the milk was spilled in order to avoid a similar catastrophe in the future.

A letter came to me a few days ago from a wise elder statesman who for many years was active, with credit to himself and with beneficial results to his country, both at Washington and at the capitol of his state. He was commenting favorably upon an article that I wrote some two or three weeks ago for the *New York Times*, in which I had dwelt pessimistically and impatiently upon the dissipation, by selfish, greedy, and unpatriotic men, of the irreplaceable and tremendously important oil resources of our country. He was kind enough to say that it was an appropriate and a timely article and then he concluded: "We have always been living off our capital in this country. That accounts for our great prosperity. We have not been a prudent or a careful people. And our children will have to pay the price of our extravagances."

This elder statesman was right. When we have time to stop to think of them we are proud of our schools, our universities, our libraries, and our art galleries. But how few of us have had any real concern for the things of the

spirit, for the graces of life? We are a practical people, a race of go-getters, attuned to a jazz age. Our outstanding characteristic is acquisitiveness. I don't mean miserliness. As a people, with rare exceptions, we do not accumulate property or the tokens of property in order to have the sensations of the miser dribbling his gold thru his fingers. We are acquisitive because of our urge for power, because we want to experience the feeling of expansive self-satisfaction and condescending urbanity that are the perfect blooms of power. Even there are those who accumulate wealth for the satisfaction of giving it away, more or less freely, for fine causes. A wonderful chapter in our history is the recital of deeds of prodigious generosity on the part of rich men for the public good.

But in acquiring we have at the same time been ruthlessly destroying. Our methods of exploiting our natural resources have been wasteful. By hewing down our mighty forests in careless and indifferent fashion we have caused the destruction of timber products the value of which, if we had them now, would reach staggering figures. Denuded of their natural and necessary protection, our streams have carried and continue to carry to the sea, hundreds of thousands of fertile acres. We have wantonly destroyed our fish, bird, and animal resources to satisfy a sadistic desire to kill. Our pioneer fathers, pushing ever westward from the sterile fields of New England, have taken up new farmsteads only to exploit them without sense of obligation to restore the fertility that they drained into their abundant crops. In time has come another abandonment and a renewed search for virgin soil whose capital of fertility in its turn could be drawn upon until exhausted.

We have opened more and more coal mines, producing far beyond consumptive demands with consequent cut-throat competition among operators and starvation wages for our miners. We have shot billions of feet of natural gas into the air and have allowed what might be called the very life blood of our modern civilization, oil, to be produced wastefully and unsocially, resulting in enormous losses.

It goes without saying that we cannot continue indefinitely thus to dissipate the natural resources upon which our health, well-being, and future prosperity depend. In scattering these prodigal riches with a lavish hand, we are, as has been said, using up our capital. Some of this capital by its very nature can never be replaced. Some of it can be built up again, but only by a long, tedious, and costly process. A tree a thousand years old can be cut down in a few minutes but it will take another thousand years to grow a similar tree. We have gone on the theory that so vast is our country, so rich is it in resources, that we need give no thought to the morrow. We have believed that our children and theirs will have the same opportunity of early acquisition of easy wealth that we have had, and that our fathers had before us in even greater degree.

Nor have our natural resources alone been at the mercy of ruthless exploiters. We have even stood contentedly by and permitted our human resources to be thrown into the hungry jaws of the Moloch of acquisitiveness. Our first human victims were the original possessors of this vast land.

Tricked, despoiled, and driven back at the point of the sword, the Indians were finally herded onto reservations of sterile soil and rigorous climate. If we later discovered that we had underestimated the economic possibilities of the land that we had given to them, we would proceed to dispossess them again and again until in the end only such land was theirs as the white man felt he could not possibly find any use for. When to our consternation we sometimes found that even inhospitable and barren desert might possess rich treasures of oil or other mineral wealth, we would proceed once more to despoil the Indians by methods more subtle than mere dispossession, since we could not openly take from them those ultimate deserts which were the last bare bone of their original holdings.

Brought to our shores originally by enterprising merchants who dealt in human bodies just as one would deal in any other commodity, the Negro became a mere chattel. Altho later freed from slavery at an enormous cost in treasure and blood, he has never ceased to be exploited. Like the Indian, he has not had a fair chance, and how hollow in his ears must sound that phrase that we so love to use: "All men are created free and equal."

Following our importation of slave labor we induced immigrants from Europe to come to our shores in untold thousands. We were building up an industrial empire. We needed cheap labor and we knew how and where to get it. These men and women, speaking strange languages, unused to our customs, ignorant of their rights under our laws, were driven to work underground in mines or herded above ground in factories for long sweating hours of arduous toil, for which they were paid wages insufficient to maintain decent standards of living.

We have not even stopped there. We have destroyed the bodies and souls of little children in our greed for profits and the things that profits will buy. Nor have we cared whose children we were sacrificing, provided only that they were old enough to toddle to their tasks and work long, exhausting hours in crowded, insanitary surroundings while tending dangerous machinery.

But gradually our consciences became stirred. We came to realize that the under-privileged were entitled to some chance at life. And we rightfully concluded that the best chance we could give was to provide them with opportunities for an education. So we began to pass compulsory education laws. Along with these laws, in state after state, we decreed that children below a certain age might not go into the factories to work under sweatshop conditions for pitiful wages. We went in for night schools. We began to think of adult education. We provided continuation courses for those who wanted to pursue their studies even after they found employment. We have honestly been trying in these later years to build up and enhance the value thru education of our human resources. This awakened appreciation of our obligation toward our fellow human beings interestingly enough has developed concurrently with a realization that we must conserve and rebuild our natural resources.

Possessed of easily acquired, abundant wealth, and with a disposition to be prodigal with that wealth, we have not begrudged the money demanded

of us to build schools, to employ teachers, and ever to widen our curriculums, altho our money has not been equitably or wisely expended. Some sections have been oversupplied while others we have left in want. But we have reached the crossroads. There is a feeling of doubt in the land about our ability further to carry on in our educational program, and a question even as to its desirability, granted the ability so to do. This is natural and understandable. The material things of life have always been the most appealing to us. It has been our theory that wealth covered a multitude of sins, including the sin of ignorance. I wonder if it isn't a fair statement that while we have indulged ourselves liberally, if unevenly, in education we have not done this so much for the sake of education itself or to add to the culture and graciousness of life, but because of the general belief that by educating ourselves and our children we have been making it more possible to win in the race for the acquisition of wealth?

Now there is general evidence that we are facing a real crisis in the education of our people. Doubts as to whether education is achieving what we had expected of it, as well as impaired ability to finance our educational institutions on the scale to which they have grown accustomed, are helping to develop a situation and a public temper which may result in a further waste of human resources. Many thousands of children in this country have never yet been provided with schools; this past year millions were added to this group as schools thruout the land were forced to close; additional millions have never had a chance at the education which their special handicaps or abilities required. Recently even the beginnings of these special provisions have been abolished or attacked as luxuries. Many communities, despite our prodigalities in some directions, have never yet had buildings enough, or equipment enough, or teachers enough to care adequately for their children, and yet the past year has seen further decreases in such communities. The priceless human resources of youth, with its ability and time for study, with its eagerness to be prepared for service, and its confidence in the wise provisions made for it by a generous government which it hopes to serve, are being dissipated or allowed to remain undeveloped.

We are seeing on all sides a willingness—in some cases it has almost seemed like an eager desire—to curtail and limit educational possibilities for this generation. Citizens of a certain type are always willing to begin their economies with the schools and end them there. Our school buildings, they find it easy to assert, are too elaborate. They should be as devoid of ornament and as lacking in architectural interest as the barest school cabin in bleak, puritan New England. As they reason it out, why spend time except on such rudimentary subjects as the three R's? Many of them have succeeded in life without any of the educational embellishments, and if they have been able to make a living, possess themselves of the essentials for material comfort, and in their turn beget children in their own self-satisfied images, why be concerned that others should have more education than they themselves have so brilliantly succeeded on?

That many of our schools had been expensive and often times wasteful up to the time that we found ourselves on the verge of the economic disaster in 1929, I do not believe any intelligent friend of the schools themselves will deny. But I find it difficult to blame the schools when practically all of us, individually and thru every association, were fully as reckless and unheeding. At least it may be said to the credit of the schools that their money, even if unwisely spent, was for the benefit of our children. There was a social vision and an altruistic motive associated with this over-expenditure.

The most important question requiring an answer today at the hands of the American people is: What are we going to do about our schools? Shall we maintain them on such a basis as will give our children an education in those essentials absolutely necessary to equip them as individuals and as citizens to lead such lives as men and women must be equipped to lead in a self-governing republic of free men, or are we going to let them slip back into an era of unenlightenment, bigotry, and ignorance?

I give it to you as my deliberate opinion that the last place to put devitalizing economy into effect is in our schools. I say this because to my mind ignorance is incompatible with free institutions that are the expression of the carefully reasoned choice of the people themselves. Unless as a people we are given a constantly enlarged background of history and the social sciences; unless we know something about government and its operation; unless we are acquainted with contemporaneous national and international events; unless our spirits thru education are made as free as possible from prejudice, superstition, and bigotry; unless we are trained to be mutually tolerant and understanding of one another, building up within ourselves a will to understand the other man's point of view; unless all of these things and more are offered to us, our free institutions which were established that we might be able to live fuller and nobler lives, are in grave danger. Except by means of a broad and generous education freely provided by the people for our children as a whole, we cannot hope to have put into the hands of those children essential tools with which to carve out a happy destiny for themselves and for their own children in their turn. If at this critical stage we continue to deny educational opportunities to literally millions of our children, our country will suffer when those millions, grown shortly to be uneducated men and women, are called upon to undertake the responsibilities of government.

When I speak of education as an absolute prerequisite for self-government, I mean *education*. I mean *more than that*. I mean universal education. The ability to read and to scrawl a signature at the end of a badly written letter may take one out of the illiteracy class, but it is a far cry from being educated. Every person in this country should be educated to his fullest possible capacity. If we undertake to build a factory we insist on having the best equipment that the genius of the inventors is able to supply. If a youth can run one hundred yards in less than ten seconds, a conscientious trainer will not think he is doing his duty if he shows him how to run in eleven seconds. If

we are sending a squad of woodsmen into the forest to cut trees, we do not withhold from them highly tempered axes with sharp edges and give to them instead rusty and dull implements.

Of how much greater worth than factories and athletic skill and workmen's tools are human minds? The waste in human capacity really to live resulting from our carelessness and indifference with respect to education is amazing. Customarily we have regarded a child as educated if he has passed the eighth grade or if he has a high-school diploma, or has graduated from a college, depending more or less upon the social background of the child. We show more interest in developing our horses than in building up the minds and bodies of our children. Just as every race horse should be developed to the utmost of his capacity, so should every child be given an education to the point of highest development. I do not mean by this that every child should have a college course and perhaps go on for a higher degree. I mean just what I say—that every child should be given every possible opportunity in the schools to unfold to his utmost intellectual and spiritual capacity, regardless of where along the long road of education that means that any particular child should stop.

Capacity for education is our one distinguishing characteristic as members of the animal kingdom. Economy in other directions for the sake of maintaining and improving our educational facilities would be only common sense. Here is the last place where we should economize and the first where we should increase our outlay. After all, America used to get along without all the conveniences and all the luxuries and all the non-essential appendages of life that we now consider so essential. The truth is we do not want to give up the luxuries that have made life so soft and easy. We are unwilling to make personal sacrifices even for the education of our children and the future welfare of our country. We are willing to let them, and thru them, the country, pay with interest the heavy costs of our own self-indulgence and of our reckless ways of life.

I am tremendously concerned about the present and future welfare of our country. I know that without a highly educated electorate our system of government cannot be maintained; certainly it cannot be developed and perfected. I know that an intelligent government based upon an intelligent citizenship does not spontaneously grow. Both must be fashioned by carefully fabricated, highly tempered intellectual tools. Our chief interest as a government, therefore, is education and unwise economy that will cut at the roots of our system of free and universal education, our American system, may prove to be a fatal economy. To be great and noble and free, America must be educated.

THE CIRCUIT RIDER OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

J. W. CRABTREE, SECRETARY, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

It is said that Dr. A. E. Winship did not leave wealth. By that is meant that he did not leave dollars. He left, however, a wealth in affection, in service, and in achievements which cannot be measured in gold or silver. Few men have done so much to carry forward the principles and causes that promote education and that maintain civilization. He did it largely by building men and women.

He not only helped to give the nation confidence in such early leaders as Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, William E. Sheldon, and W. T. Harris, but he helped to build up confidence in the next group of leaders such as Thomas E. Finegan, Susan M. Dorsey, C. G. Pearce, Homer H. Seerley, Ella Flagg Young, Charles W. Eliot, David Starr Jordan, Lucy M. Wheelock, and a score of others whose names stand out. While giving strength to the arm of these leaders, he was also inspiring and bringing forward another group to take their places as they would retire from active service.

More than a score of this third group are attending this convention. I am amazed as I talk with them and hear them refer to the encouragement which they received from Dr. Winship—amazed that the influence of any one man could have reached so many people and that it could have impressed them so deeply.

For more than forty years Dr. Winship was a source of inspiration to me personally. He helped me to realize the importance of teaching. He encouraged me to have faith in myself. He helped me to know the points in education where progress could be made and where leadership was most needed. When I did something worthwhile he commended me. If I seemed to be taking an unwise course he pointed out the dangers to me.

Always in demand for conferences and addresses, he was continually on the go, swinging around the circle of the states in a ministry of faith and encouragement to the teachers of America. He made seventy round trips from the Atlantic to the Pacific, lecturing to teachers and to citizens and visiting schools. This gave him the title "The Circuit Rider of American Education." Wherever he stopped his eye would turn immediately to what was best. His keen constructive mind would store away the details for later use.

Dr. Winship had a genius for understanding people. He did not pay much attention to the details of a newly erected school building, or to a beautified campus but he did see every teacher and every pupil in that school, and he saw them as important personalities. Just as practically all outstanding national leaders owed much to him, the leaders in localities and in the states feel that much of their success has been due to his kind advice.

Some have said that it was just Dr. Winship's nature to take an interest in other people. But I learned from him many years ago that what he was doing was part of a well-thought-out plan of life. Only recently, however,

was my attention called to his statement of this creed over fifty years ago in one of the first issues of his *Journal of Education*. Read it and you will understand his life better than before. The following is taken from his March *Journal*, 1886:

"The *Journal* will do all in its power to popularize those who are doing good work in the profession. It is a disadvantage under which the profession has labored for the past thirty years, especially, that its leaders do not receive the same popular recognition that men of equal prominence attain in other professions. A clergyman, author, lawyer, or statesman with the same intellectual grasp, culture, or national popular gift attains greater public fame by half than the teachers."

The teachers of America have not been unmindful of the great service which Dr. Winship performed in their behalf. On his seventy-ninth birthday, he was honored by a remarkable luncheon held in connection with the Department of Superintendence at Chicago in 1924. He was presented with a volume of personal letters of appreciation from every section of the country and from every branch of the profession, reflecting the amazing range of his service and acquaintance.

At the 1927 meeting of the Department of Superintendence, on his eighty-second birthday, he was presented with a beautiful gold watch chain made up of forty-eight links with the name of each state engraved on the link which it had given. In 1932 he was elected an honorary president of the National Education Association which he had served so faithfully thruout his professional life. This is the highest honor conferred by the National Education Association.

Much that Dr. Winship worked for is yet to be achieved. There is still the call for pioneers. This age—like his—is an epoch of change and growth. The schools face the task of adapting themselves anew to the life around them, and of helping to make that life worthy of our great American heritage. It is for us, therefore, to carry on the great work to which Dr. Winship gave his life. It is for us to take new inspiration from this noble character and to dedicate ourselves anew to the ideals for which he stood.

Reports of Committees

MUCH of the most significant work of the Association is accomplished by committees. The scope of the work carried on by committees during the past year is indicated by the following pages devoted to their reports. Unless otherwise indicated the reports were adopted by the Representative Assembly at Chicago. For discussion concerning reports see Minutes of the Representative Assembly in the latter part of this book. Complete lists of the membership of each committee are also given elsewhere in this volume.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

THOMAS D. WOOD, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK, N. Y., *Chairman*

The Committee on Health Problems in Education was created by the National Council of Education at San Francisco in July, 1911. In the same year a cooperating committee of the American Medical Association was appointed. These two committees were soon fused into the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education. Dr. Thomas D. Wood has been chairman of the Joint Health Committee since its organization in 1911. At the annual meeting in Des Moines, in July 1921, the Health Committee of the National Council of Education was formally adopted by the National Education Association and, in cooperation with the corresponding committee of the American Medical Association, became the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association.

Education and health officials, child health organizations, and many other organizations and individuals in our own and other countries have turned to this committee for information, advice, and leadership relating to literature and standards dealing with many phases of the health conditions and health programs of schools.

Since 1912 the following reports have been published:

1. *Country Schoolhouses*, prepared in 1912 by the late Dr. Fletcher B. Dresslar, and distributed by the United States Bureau of Education.
2. *The Health Chart Set*, prepared in 1917, comprises sixty charts, each 22 x 28 inches. Nearly 100,000 individual charts have been distributed in our own and in foreign countries.
3. *The Health Chart Report*, prepared in 1917, is now in its third edition. This pamphlet not only serves to illustrate and explain the health charts, but is used extensively for health instruction, and also as a guide in making health posters and scrapbooks.
4. *Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools*, prepared in 1914, revised in 1920, established standards which have had a far-reaching effect in improving the health conditions of rural schools. The sum of \$3000, required for the printing of the first edition of this report (750,000 copies), was provided in a special gift from the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund of Chicago.
5. *Health Essentials for Rural-School Children*, prepared in 1916, revised in 1921, has served as a supplementary text in normal schools and as a practical handbook for rural-school teachers and supervisors.
6. *The Teacher's Part in Social Hygiene*, published in 1921, revised in 1926, was prepared thru the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association. The report, together with its splendid bibliography, has supplied excellent material for many teachers.
7. *Daylight in the Schoolroom*, prepared in 1921 by a subcommittee under the chairmanship of Dr. Edward Jackson, contains valuable material dealing with school lighting.
8. *Health Improvement in Rural Schools*, published in 1922, was in the process of preparation for several years. Following considerable painstaking work by well-trained teachers and supervisors, the bulletin was revised and completed

thru the substantial cooperation of the staff of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund.

9. *Health Service in City Schools of the United States*, published in 1922, contains the results of a questionnaire survey with a summary of information from 340 leading school superintendents thruout the country.
10. *Ventilation of School Buildings*, published in 1925 thru the cooperation of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, and under the chairmanship of Mary E. Murphy, director of this fund, contains valuable material dealing with this important health topic.
11. *Conserving the Sight of School Children*, published in 1925, revised in 1928, in cooperation with the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, furnishes standards for protecting the eyes and vision of school pupils.

A revised edition of this important report is now being prepared by the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness to bring the report up to date. This revised report, as in the case of the original report, will be furnished to our Joint Health Committee in the introductory edition by the National Society. This organization is planning two additional special reports, to be prepared in near future and to be issued, if approved, by our Joint Health Committee with the cooperation of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

12. *The Deafened School Child*, published in 1928 in cooperation with the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing, has been used extensively by teachers, supervisors, and health workers as a standard for providing improved conditions for children with defective hearing.

This report is now being carefully revised with the cooperation of a special committee representing the federation just mentioned, and will be published in the near future with the improved title: *The Hard of Hearing School Child*. The completion of this revised report waits for the improvement to a satisfactory point of important technical tests of hearing.

13. *Health Education*. The most important report prepared by and under the direction of the Joint Health Committee is entitled *Health Education—A Program for Public Schools and Teacher-Training Institutions*. The first edition of this report was published in 1924 after two years of preparation, with the constructive cooperation of twenty-seven health specialists.

In the six years after this report was published, the increasing demand for it provided gratifying evidence of its recognition as the outstanding authoritative statement of principles, aims, and general objectives in health education.

This report was extensively revised in 1930 with the active and constructive cooperation of a technical advisory committee of fifty specialists to keep step with progress in general education, in health education, and in the sciences from which subjectmatter in health education is drawn. This second edition of the report, thoroly revised and enlarged by nearly 100 pages, is meeting everywhere with a most favorable reception. The opinions regarding it express high praise with reference to the scientific and educational value of this report.

The following new materials and reports, approved by the Joint Health Committee at the annual meeting, are now in process of construction:

1. *Health Inspection of School Children*, with blanks for recording the results of such inspections. This pamphlet, with copies of the accompanying blanks, has been tried experimentally. This report is being printed and will be ready for distribution by July 1, 1933.
2. *New Series of Health Posters*. Ten health posters, to be printed in colors, are now ready and have been approved by the Joint Health Committee. These posters will be published as soon as economic conditions are sufficiently improved. They are particularly planned for rural and small town schools,

and the subjects to be presented represent the carefully tabulated results of the opinions and judgments of teachers, artists, and those experienced in poster making and publication.

3. *Mental Health for School Children—What Every Teacher Should Know.* This report is now being prepared thru the cooperation of a special joint committee of the American Orthopsychiatric Association and the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. It is confidently expected that this much needed report will be completed and, if economic conditions permit, will be printed within the coming year.
4. *Mouth Health for School Children.* This report is now being prepared thru the cooperation of a special joint committee of the American Mouth Health Association, the American Dental Association, and the American Society for the Promotion of Dentistry for Children. It is expected that this report will be completed, published, and ready for distribution within the coming year.
5. *Home and School Cooperation for the Health of School Children.* This report is being prepared with the cooperation of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. A special committee representing the Joint Health Committee and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has been appointed, and it is hoped that this report will be completed and available in print a year from now.
6. *Safety for School Children,* to be prepared with the cooperation of the National Safety Council and the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters. It is expected that this report will not duplicate any present reports, but will attempt to meet certain needs of the schools with reference to safety which may be effectively met by school teachers and other school officials.

The Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education is striving earnestly to give constructive service in proposing optimum essentials, in clarifying health procedures, in conducting research, preparing reports, and disseminating knowledge for conserving and improving the health of school children and of teachers.

Cooperation of national groups and organizations has been, and continues to be, indispensable to progress in our Joint Committee program. Such constructive and substantial cooperation is being given to our Joint Committee in generous measure, even during this period of economic depression. For all of this splendid help our Joint Committee is deeply grateful.

To continue the work of the Committee, and to provide for carrying thru and completing the projects which have been approved at annual meetings of the Committee after careful deliberation, the Committee expresses the hope that an appropriation of \$500 for the work of the Committee during the coming year, 1933-34, will be approved and granted by the National Education Association, with the expectation that, as has been the custom for many years, an equal sum will be made available by the American Medical Association for the expenses of the Joint Health Committee.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS

MRS. HUGH BRADFORD, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS, SACRAMENTO, CALIF., *Chairman*

The Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has been functioning for four years in an effort to support more effectively the educational program which is dependent on mutual effort and cooperation.

During the last two years the Committee has urged that states have similar committees in which there should be representatives from state departments of education, state teachers associations, and leaders of the state branches of the parent-teacher associations. This has been done in practically all of the states. During the educational crisis these groups have stimulated and directed public opinion in support of education. From thirty-four states have come definite reports of activities which include asking the governors to call legislatures into special session in order to formulate plans for keeping schools open; defending good school legislation and defeating the adverse; holding regional and local meetings in defense of educational standards; informing the public that parents as taxpayers are seeking a proper estimate of educational costs and school maintenance in all budgets; and arousing interest in school budgets by radio talks, by community gatherings, and by state and national bulletins, by resolutions, letters, and telegrams. Thru every possible channel these groups have stood for school maintenance, for libraries, and other educational facilities.

These committee meetings are called at the conventions of the National Education Association, the Department of Superintendence, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. At the last meeting it was urged that emphasis be placed on a study of budgets and of the relative costs of education. This Joint Committee desires to continue the program of the past by interchange of bulletin material for use in teachers' and parent-teacher magazines, for the promotion of parent education, and for the protection and upbuilding of educational standards.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMISSION ON THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

JOHN K. NORTON, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y., *Chairman*

Some fifteen years ago, conditions growing out of the World War caused the National Education Association to appoint an emergency commission. To the epoch-making work of this war-time commission may be traced many of the most significant advances achieved in education during the decade of the twenties.

The development of the depression has created conditions which, by the beginning of the current calendar year, justified the creation of a second emergency commission. Sensing the seriousness of the situation, President Rosier of the National Education Association and President Potter of the Department of Superintendence together appointed a Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. The members of this Commission are listed in the *Official Manual* for delegates. The Commission was instructed to inquire into the difficulties, financial and otherwise, which the schools were encountering, and to take action aimed to meet these difficulties.

The Commission met immediately after its appointment, outlined policies to govern its procedure, and began the development of a program of action.

One of the early decisions of the Commission was that the time had been reached when an offensive, rather than a defensive, attitude should be taken concerning these groups and forces which were operating to undermine the integrity of the public schools and colleges of the nation.

It was also decided that the Commission would create as little additional machinery of organization as possible. Active national, regional, state, and local educational organizations are in existence. It was the decision to work thru the officers of these organization and thru the officers of the various state and local school systems.

As a third policy, the Commission decided to base its program, insofar as resources permitted, upon factual information and the advice of competent authorities, both within and without the teaching profession.

Fourth, the Commission organized as a board of strategy, to serve as a rallying point for the forces made up of teachers, parents, and public-spirited citizens interested in the maintenance and improvement of America's system of free public schools. Its aim is to exert the full force of the million members of the teaching profession and of the many millions of parents and citizens interested in preserving the idea of free public education and of making that idea increasingly articulate in improved schools and colleges.

The administration of the program of the Joint Commission has been carried on thru the headquarters staff of the National Education Association and of its Department of Superintendence. The headquarters staff, in spite of the reduction in resources, which has resulted from the depression, has graciously accepted and efficiently performed the large amount of unexpected and additional work, which the program of the Commission has required. The brunt of this work has fallen upon the Division of Administrative Service, the Research Division, and the Division of Publications. Every worker directed by Secretary Crabtree and Secretary Shankland has responded with promptness and vigor to every request made by the Commission.

The Commission has been heartened by the nationwide cooperation which it has received from officers of educational associations and of school systems thruout the country. The United States Office of Education, the state departments of education, the state teachers association, and the departments of the National Education Association, are but a few of the agencies which have wholeheartedly responded to the call of the Commission. Equally cordial

response has been received from lay organizations, of which the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and its state and local branches are a conspicuous example.

The members of the Delegate Assembly have already come in contact with some of the elements of the program of action, which the Commission has vigorously developed during the six months of its existence. I am ready to submit briefly for your consideration the things which have been done or are now under way.

A board of 476 regional consultants has been appointed to work with and advise the Commission in the development of its program. These consultants who are officers of national, regional, and state educational organizations, of state and local school systems, of parent-teacher organizations, and of school-board associations, are being called together in a series of regional conferences. Thus far members of the Commission have met the regional consultants in conferences held in Kansas City, Chicago, Atlanta, and Cincinnati. A national conference of all regional consultants was held last Monday afternoon as a part of President Rosier's convention program.

It is the plan to continue these regional conferences until all sections of the country have been covered, and until emergency conditions cease to exist. The regional conferences already held have been well attended and actively participated in by the officers, both of educational and lay organizations. These conferences have offered those on the firing line an opportunity to advise the Commission as to its program; have permitted the pooling of ideas concerning constructive action aimed at emergency problems; and have offered an opportunity to disseminate material and advice bearing on the crisis in education. Those attending the regional conferences have been instructed to come prepared to give and to receive help. The Commission has profited from these conferences. Letters from many regional consultants indicate that they have also received assistance.

A bimonthly newsletter has been sent by the Commission to regional consultants. These letters have transmitted statistical information as to the number of schools closed, the extent of the denial of educational opportunity, the legislative situation in the various states, and other factual information concerning the effects of the depression on the schools.

The Commission has developed a plan for the regular collection of current information concerning the effect of the depression on education. This information has provided the Commission with one basis for the development of its program. It has furnished live material for newspaper releases and magazine articles, and has been used widely in radio broadcasts, dealing with the educational situation.

A series of twenty-five radio broadcasts by well-known laymen and educators was presented during April and May under the auspices of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. These broadcasts over national hookups were possible due to the courtesy of the National Broadcasting Company and the Columbia Broadcasting System. They dealt with educational problems growing out of the emergency. The carefully prepared addresses of

the speakers who appeared on this radio series constitute a store of unexcelled material in brief form concerning vital educational problems growing out of the current crisis. Copies of these addresses were promptly distributed from the headquarters of the National Education Association in response to a nationwide demand.

A continuing survey has been begun of organizations which are critical or antagonistic toward public education. The documents and other materials assembled in this connection are providing valuable information as to the motives behind the attacks on the public schools. Such information has been of great value to the Commission in developing its program and in supplying information to those on the firing line. It is the plan to use this material in eliminating opposition to the schools which is based on false information, and in planning offensive action against those out of agreement with the idea of free public education. This survey will also provide a means of discovering the shortcomings of our schools and will thereby offer a basis for future progress.

A parallel survey is being made of agencies favorable to public education. This material will later be used in developing more dynamic cooperation between educational and lay organizations.

Another project seeks to secure a thoughtful appraisal by large numbers of intelligent citizens of the purposes, scope, and methods of public education.

Under cover of the depression, proposals are being made which strike at the very roots of the principles upon which free education has been developed in this country. It is our belief that we should not shrink from these attacks, but should meet our opponents on their own grounds. Do the parents of this nation wish high-school education to be provided only for a limited few? Do they wish the payment of tuition to be set up as a prerequisite to admission to secondary schools, as has been proposed by certain organizations? Does the principle still hold that every child should have the particular opportunities which are required in order that he may develop such talent as he may possess? That is, do we still believe in the educability of every boy and girl? We should seek mandates from parents and from the rank and file of citizens on questions such as these.

With this project in mind, a series of questions similar to those just raised, has been prepared concerning the organization of public education in the United States. It is proposed to suggest these questions as the basis of open forum discussion in many communities. A publication, entitled *Appraising the Schools*, is being prepared for use by those anxious to organize and participate in such forums. This publication, which will be available early in the fall, is being developed in cooperation with and thru the financial assistance of the Phi Delta Kappa Educational Fraternity, which has offered the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education indispensable support in the development of a program. This project grows out of the belief that the principles upon which free public education has been developed will bear scrutiny even in a time of economic depression, and that such scrutiny will

serve to clarify and strengthen the democratic ideals which lie back of our system of free public schools.

A second important outcome should be the development of wider interest on the part of the general public in the purposes and procedures of public schools and colleges. It is our belief that the public schools have everything to gain from critical consideration of their procedures on the part of the people who are the stockholders in the great enterprise known as public education. Teachers should be the last to claim that the schools are perfect. There is no more dangerous disease to which education can fall prey than self-satisfaction. We cannot disclaim any responsibility for the evils which now beset the nation. To do so would be to proclaim that the school is a futile organization. It is true that we have done the best our vision would permit. But our vision may have been too short.

There are frontier thinkers, both within and without the profession, who believe that fundamental revisions in the purposes and methods of public education are demanded by the characteristics of contemporary civilization. They believe that the schools should play a more dynamic role in accomplishing the fulfillment of the promises of the New Deal.

Shall we resent the criticisms of those conscientious thinkers or shall we profit from them? The latter is the more intelligent course. It is of the greatest importance that teachers and other conscientious citizens should re-appraise the role of public education in the light of the better economic, political, and social order towards which all constructive thinkers are working.

A series of publicity projects has been sponsored by the Commission. Newspaper editorials, statements by well-known citizens, and other materials favorable to education have been collected. This material has been widely disseminated and has been reprinted in hundreds of educational and lay publications. A bulletin, entitled *Meeting the Emergency in Education*, has been prepared and widely distributed.

A series of brief leaflets, dealing with questions of peculiar importance to the crisis in education is being prepared. The first of these, entitled *Before You Cut That School Budget*, is already available.

There has been assembled a comprehensive collection of material issued by various state and local school systems in dealing with educational problems growing out of the depression. It is of great importance that all states should profit from the publicity programs which have been developed in Pennsylvania and many other states. An exhibit of this material is presented at this convention. You are invited to inspect it and to receive other help concerning educational publicity at Exhibit Booth A2.

A bulletin, entitled *Helping Citizens To Know Their Schools*, which draws heavily upon the experience of state and local school systems in developing programs of educational interpretation, is being prepared and will be issued during 1933-34. American Education Week, sponsored by the National Education Association, the United States Office of Education, and the American Legion will be developed this year around the work and plans

of the Joint Commission. The theme for the Week is *Meeting the Emergency in Education*.

Close contact has been maintained by the Commission with developments in the nation's capital, which are of direct concern to education. A special report was prepared and distributed concerning the federal pay cut and its implications for teachers' salary schedules. We are closely watching the inflation program in order to determine its probable influence on the cost of living and teachers' salaries.

The chairman of the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association is a member of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. The Commission has assigned Dr. Hall the responsibility for phases of its program affecting the relation of the federal government to education.

A grant of \$4750 was recently obtained from the Carnegie Corporation for the work of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. Part of this sum is to be used in conducting a National Conference on the Financing of Education. To this conference, which is to be held at Columbia University during this summer, there has been invited a small group of educational officials in key positions from various sections of the United States. This conference will have the assistance of technical experts in the fields of school finance, public finance, and taxation. Members of the conference will draft a report dealing with the principles and policies which should govern the financing of education in the United States.

It is hoped that this report will provide the Commission an authoritative basis for a dynamic program of activities, bearing on the financing of education, which will be promoted with the cooperation of the regional consultants and others interested in developing sound bases of school support.

The Joint Commission has been in existence for six months—all too brief a period to permit any confident appraisal of the present outlook for education. In that time, however, we have employed every facility at our command in order to appraise the situation.

What message do we bring to the teachers of the nation? It is not a message of despair, but one of hope. We do not wish to underestimate the seriousness of the present crisis, or to depreciate the dangers which lie ahead.

For nearly four years the country has been in one of the most serious periods of economic stagnation of its history. As one reviews the impact of this period upon the public schools, a number of significant facts stand out.

The period of the depression has reemphasized to all thoughtful people the importance of the public school. The very nature of our civilization makes imperative increased emphasis on education. The depression has served to clarify certain characteristics of our civilization which are of great import to education. We have come to realize that we are living in a society in which intelligent cooperation as opposed to ruthless individualism must be increasingly emphasized. Ours is a society in which profound changes are occurring with a rapidity that has never been equaled before in the history of any nation. Ours is a society of tremendous complexity, dependent upon science, technology, and specialization. Perhaps, most important of all we

have come to realize that our order offers possibilities for material, cultural, and spiritual well-being which entirely surpass those held out to any other generation.

Each of those characteristics of our civilization carries with it inescapable implications for public education. If we are to have less ruthless individualism and more intelligent cooperation, education must produce citizens capable of conducting their enterprises on a high level of cooperation.

If rapid changes are to occur in our economic, political, and cultural life, then we must have people trained to recognize the significance of these changes and to make the adaptation in individual and institutional life which they call for.

As science, technology, and specialization increasingly influence our ways of living, we must not only train scientists and technicians but also be sure that these scientists and technicians realize the social implications of their callings and appreciate the personal obligations to society of the man and woman of expert knowledge.

If we are to realize the possibilities for material, cultural, and spiritual well-being which science and the machine make possible, education must create citizens who not only understand the unique potentialities, but who resolutely and continually demand the fulfillment of these possibilities.

This is all merely another way of saying that the whole trend of American life in recent decades, and particularly since the onset of the depression, has emphasized the fundamental importance of education to the state.

The present situation opens up three possibilities for the future. These are chaos, revolution, or evolution. The choice which we make will determine the emphasis we will put on education.

The first possibility is that we will continue to drift, as we did during the first three and a half years of the depression, permitting the swings of the economic cycle to gyrate with increasing amplitude until chaos results, civilization retrogresses, and most of the things which we hold dear are swept away. Such things have happened before in the history of the race. They could happen to us. If this is to be the outcome the schools can be closed tomorrow. In fact, that would be one of the best ways to proceed if chaos is our goal. But most people would prefer some other solution.

There is a second route. We might adopt some form of dictatorship. A competent dictator would probably straighten up the present mess in a year. Some nations have chosen this road to stability and prosperity. We may not be so far from it. The bankers are already virtually telling some cities what they may and may not do.

If this is to be America's way out of the present situation, or some similar situation in the future, we can close up many of the schools. A few must be kept to educate our rulers. A few more will suffice to give the elementary training required by those who are to be ruled.

But most Americans recoil from dictatorship, whether of the Russian, the Italian, or the German variety. The past experience of the world with oligarchies does not recommend this as a permanent solution.

The third way out lies along the route of democratic evolution. If we take this road it will be necessary to make fundamental revisions in many of our public and private institutions. But we will make these revisions under democratic control. This is the route which the great mass of Americans would prefer to take.

But if we are to travel this road, education will have to become one of the most fundamental concerns of the state. Democracy is never a perfect form of government. Its only hope for reasonable success depends upon the production of an adequate supply of intelligent leaders with large concern for the general welfare, and a great mass of followers sufficiently intelligent to require and to permit the leaders to make the revisions of our economic, political, and social institutions which changing conditions demand.

It is these considerations which make so tragic the shortsighted view which certain vested interests have taken toward public schools and colleges during the depression.

A small but active minority of business and financial leaders have so little realized the fundamental importance of education to present stability, and future progress, that they have permitted their influence and money to be used in a ruthless campaign, which has had as its aim the indiscriminate slashing of all public services. They have organized economic councils, taxpayers leagues, and other agencies designed to hammer down taxes at any cost.

They have justified their selfish and reactionary activities under the indefensible economic doctrine that the depression was caused by public expenditures, and that economic recovery is dependent upon a ruthless slashing of these expenditures.

An illustration of the methods by which these short-sighted enemies of the people have sought to mislead the nation is found in an advertisement which recently appeared in a number of great metropolitan newspapers over the name of a large public utility company.

This advertisement carried the heading: "Why Don't Taxes Come Down with Incomes?" It pointed out that the average man's income had been cut to a mere fraction of the 1929 figure, and urged that taxes should be similarly slashed.

Here we have an example of the attitude, which is more responsible for the recent deprivations of the American people than any other single factor. This great utility organization is not worried by the fact that great numbers of the American people have had their wages and salaries cut until millions are unable to purchase even adequate amounts of food and clothing. What disturbs this company, to such an extent that it expends large sums for newspaper advertising which you and I help to pay for every time we use some gas or electricity, is that equally deep slashes have not been made in public expenditures.

What this utility organization wants is educational starvation equal to the physical starvation, which has threatened growing numbers of our people since 1929. When the peasant standard of living, to which millions have

been reduced, is matched by a peasant standard of educating, this public utility will be satisfied.

The time has come to give a frank answer to the selfish and reactionary vested interests, which are asking, "Why don't taxes come down with income?" and which, under the cover of the depression, are seeking to wreck our system of free public schools.

School costs have not come down as some vested interests have advocated, because the average man wants his boy and girl to have the educational opportunity, which should be the birthright of every American child. The average man has resisted the conspiracy against public education into which a minority of business leaders have entered.

The average man has had something to say about school taxes. He has insisted that his child shall not be made the victim of the economic blundering of our so-called business leaders, which a growing body of evidence is revealing to be a basic cause of the depression. It is unfortunate that the average man has not had equal ability to resist cuts, which have been made in his wage or salary.

It is time that those who are asking, "Why don't taxes come down with income?" should be answering some questions which are becoming increasingly annoying to the average man. Why is it that for nearly four years, while the average man's income was dropping to poverty levels, the business and financial leaders of the nation did little to stop this drop, but demanded indiscriminate slashes in public services, and spread the economically indefensible propaganda that the depression was due to excessive taxation?

Those who sit in the key places of business and financial control in this country have had in their hands half of the economic power of the world. What have they done with it? They have spent large sums for advertising in an effort to beat down expenditures for schools and other essential public services.

They have organized themselves into self-appointed committees, which have sought to usurp the budget-making functions of the legally elected representatives of the people.

They have been so little interested in the welfare of the children of the average men, that they have made little effort to discriminate between essential and non-essential public services.

They have employed clever lawyers to show them how to evade income taxes, which any socially-minded citizen of great wealth should have been glad to pay in a period such as the present. At the same time, they have urged that the nation's wealth is so meager, that the schooling of the average man's boy and girl must be limited to the rudiments of the three R's and a narrow vocational training, lasting but a few years. But they have not told us what boys and girls are to do with their time when they leave school to enter a labor market already glutted with twelve million unemployed.

Only recently the textile manufacturers have resisted the proposal that child labor should be barred by the trade agreements which were being worked out for the textile industry.

It is high time that such peace-time "slackers" should be called to account. The New Deal is long overdue. There is no defensible reason why the average man's income should have come down. The natural resources, the machinery of production, the workmen, the transportation facilities, everything essential to the maintenance of an American standard of living and of an American standard of educating exist in unparalleled abundance in this country.

It appears that under the slogan of the New Deal constructive forces are being put into operation, which will lift the nation from the economic morass, in which it has been floundering for nearly four years. When the seventy-third Congress recently adjourned in Washington, it had completed what was described by one commentator as one of the most momentous one hundred days of legislative action in the history of the world.

Whether this comprehensive effort to bring intelligence and cooperation into our economic life will be wholly successful cannot be predicted at this time. It would be a miracle, if this pioneer attempt was completely successful in its actual administration. But there is one fact which is clear. The positive effort which is being made to do something about the stupid economic impasse, which has afflicted us for nearly four years, deserves the constructive support of all forward-looking citizens.

If weaknesses develop in the methods which are being used to put the wheels of our marvelous economic machine in motion, then these methods should be modified. We should never again be satisfied with a do-nothing policy, which permits millions to sink to a pauper level in the presence of abundance. All signs at present indicate that the American people want neither chaos nor dictatorship. They want an honest and continuing effort made, to work out under democratic control, the revisions in our economic, social, and political systems which the times demand.

It is for this reason that we bring a message of hope, rather than one of despair. If the years which lie ahead are to be marked by a constructive and liberal policy, education is bound to be of increasing importance to the nation. Between now and 1950 we are likely to witness a period of unparalleled educational expansion and improvement.

One of the phases of the New Deal, as it develops in the years that lie just ahead, should consist of a general overhauling of the purposes, scope, and procedures of public education, in the light of the new demands of the twentieth century. In fact, such a reappraisal and strengthening of the influence of education is essential if the New Deal is to be something more than a mere "flash-in-the-pan."

It is these considerations which justify courage on the part of those who work in the field of education. The twentieth century offers American teachers the greatest challenge ever presented to any group of professional workers. Are we ready to qualify ourselves to meet this challenge? Have we the intelligence and the courage to build a system of public education that will play a dynamic rôle in the development of the New Deal? If we can give an affirmative answer to these questions, we may indeed look to the future with hope.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE TEACHER

B. R. BUCKINGHAM, BOSTON, MASS., *Chairman*

In 1927 at the meeting of this Delegate Assembly in Seattle, the Committee on the Economic Status of the Teacher was created. The circumstances were peculiar. The leaders of your body had never contemplated the creation of such a committee and they never told you to come to the floor of the Representative Assembly and introduce a resolution to that effect or vote for it. Nevertheless, for some unforeseen reason, somebody to me unknown, altho I have diligently sought to ascertain his or her name, proposed this Committee and it went thru.

The point I want to make is that the creation of this Committee was essentially a teacher measure rather than a superintendent measure or a principal measure, and more recent events in the work of the conduct of the Committee will continue to exhibit to you this fact of the peculiar interest which the teacher has in this Committee.

I was uncertain when accepting the chairmanship of the Committee what it was all about. I could see the importance of it but I could not see readily the means of getting at the solution of the problem. Now the problem, as I understand it, is this, to throw light upon the financial standing of the teachers; to appraise on a basis of ascertained fact, the satisfaction which teaching affords in freedom from financial worry and in economic independence.

What life values, dependent upon financial resources, accrue to the teacher?

Now this is something more I submit than salaries. If it were that or that mainly the work of this committee would be of no particular value or significance. The question of salaries is being covered adequately. We have reported from the various districts of the state and nation the salaries of the teachers in those districts. We know the trends; we know the amount. There would be no sense in a committee created by this body duplicating the work of others who are concerned with the salaries of teachers and who are doing the work well.

The core of this question—and I am trying to abbreviate what I have in mind—the core of this question seems to me to lie in full account in relation to local conditions of the income and expenditures of teachers. The reason why that is true, the reason why salaries alone are insufficient as a basis for estimating the economic status of teachers is first because we must know what the salary will buy. In other words, we must know something about the cost of living; and, in the second place, we must know something about what the salary is expected to buy. Life in the open country, life in the village of less than 5000 is far different from life in the city of a million. The expectation of the community is by no means the same and one has not approached the question of the standard of living on the community basis when

one has merely compared the cost of given commodities in the village and in the large city. And so we have what we may call the community standard of living.

Again we have a professional standard of living. Lawyers and doctors and clergymen do not, like teachers, go back to school after they have entered service. They do not throng the museums of Europe. Now teachers don't do those things because they have so much money. They do those things because it is a professional requirement and has got to be provided for in their scheme of living. I am inclined to think that the tourist trade would be crippled and that summer sessions would more or less vanish and a lot of other cultural institutions and activities of the country would be diminished and go backward to elementary organizations if it were not for the teaching body.

And in addition to this cost of living and in addition to both community and professional standards of living, there is a third reason why salaries are insufficient as a basis of appraisal of the economic conditions and that is the way the teacher manages his money. Of all courses that we as teachers have taken or may yet take while in service, I can think of none which would be more helpful than a course in money management. If the story were mine to tell, I could give details for the reason I believe this. We as a committee have been receiving this year from a few thousand teachers of the country details as to their money management and let me say merely that it is a varied and absorbing story. It seems to me that the Committee must make a frontal attack upon this problem.

Two years ago we brought out a report on supply and demand in teacher training. Now the relation of supply and demand to the economic status of the teacher is evident, but it is not true. The Committee felt that it was skirting the edges of the problem and that the thing to do if it were to meet the needs of the hour was to obtain nothing else than a budget statement from such teachers as were willing to participate and, moreover, that budget statement would have to last for a round year, and that looked pretty drastic. It caused the Committee to deliberate long and painfully and it nearly wrecked the Committee. In fact one member resigned rather than set his hand to the proposed action. Nevertheless, last February the Committee rounded out a budget in the form of a booklet providing twelve monthly reports to be submitted to the teachers of the country, and in April it threw itself upon the mercies of the educational public by sending a copy of this booklet together with a letter of transmittal to fifty-one superintendents of the country. These fifty-one superintendents were selected because they were in the fifty-one cities of the country for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics furnishes the cost of living data. Now these superintendents reacted in various ways. Some of them never answered the letter. Some of them decided not to participate in the enterprise and did so on their own notion. Both those who did that and those who failed to reply were themselves deciding for their teachers whether or not these teachers should participate. One said, "I regret very much that after consideration at two meetings of our board of

superintendents, it was decided not to participate in the study of the economic status of teachers."

Now I think this superintendent really did give the matter serious attention. I even think that he was right in hesitating to impose this task upon his teachers. But why should there be any imposition at all since it is a teacher question? Why not put it up to the teachers and let them decide?

Some superintendents in deciding the question were rather antagonistic. One said, "I do not care to ask any of our teachers to keep such a monthly record of expenditures as the suggested inquiry blank enclosed in your letter."

Another said, "I feel that the blank is improper and that no one will fill it out honestly. I do not see how anyone can consent to take part."

But the majority did take part. In fact we are now receiving returns from thirty-seven out of the fifty-one cities. While a few superintendents merely wrote in effect saying that "our city will help in this project," the usual procedure was to refer the question to the city teacher association. Your Committee knows of but one instance in which when this was done the teachers failed to respond favorably. This is what I meant when I said that the problem upon which the Committee is engaged is of special interest to classroom teachers. It is their status rather than the status of other groups in the educational hierarchy that is of real importance. It is important not only to the teachers themselves but also to society.

I have a few excerpts from letters received from participating teachers that have a certain human interest and I would have read them to you if I had had time, but I can assure you that there are about 3000 of these teachers in these selected cities who are striving mightily to do for you thru your Committee the thing you want done.

Now, finally, I would not have you suppose that the Committee stopped in its thinking with mere figures reported on these blanks. Money, whether paid to the teacher or spent by him, is only a symbol. To the teacher it stands for opportunity. It means in a small or large degree the realization of personal and professional aspirations. On the other hand, in regard to the community, money is equally symbolic. Taken in connection with ability to pay, it is the truest measure beside which mere verbal hypocrisies are valueless of the esteem in which the teachers and the teachers' calling are held. Accordingly I ask you, insofar as possible, to support this inquiry in your community, to say a good word for it, and to uphold the hands of the Committee. I commend to you, therefore, this inquiry upon which I hope a year from now to make a full report for the economic status of the teacher.

REPORT OF THE LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION ¹

SIDNEY B. HALL, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
RICHMOND, VA., *Chairman*

In February, 1933, the present chairman of the Legislative Commission was appointed to succeed the late Dr. Thomas E. Finegan who had held this office several years. Dr. Finegan was influential in the set-up of the Legislative Commission in 1920, and he served as a member of this body until his death. He was devoted to its ideals and purposes, and the Commission as well as the whole educational field will miss his fearless and courageous leadership, his inspiration, and enthusiasm.

Immediately upon his appointment, your new chairman made several trips to Washington to confer with members of the staff of the National Education Association. These conferences, his correspondence with members of the Commission and leaders in the Association, and a study of records of the Commission have helped him to an understanding of the scope of the work of the Commission. Reviewing the constructive work of Dr. Finegan and of his predecessors, the chairman is conscious of his responsibility to carry forward the work of the Commission on the same high plane of efficiency and service which characterized the work of former chairmen. With the help of the membership and of the Association, policies developing the purposes for which the Commission was established will be pursued.

Legislative Commission Meeting in Minneapolis

Closely following the appointment of the new chairman, a meeting of the Legislative Commission was held in Minneapolis, Minnesota. At this meeting the chairman submitted to the Commission the following brief program of action which was unanimously approved by those present:

1. Continued support of a federal Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet, and the introduction of a bill for such a Department in the present Congress.
2. Continued efforts to bring about a satisfactory coordination and unification of federal educational activities in the proposed plan of reorganization of the federal government.
3. Support of bills in Congress proposing to amend the Reconstruction Finance Corporation Act to authorize federal emergency loans to school districts.
4. Broaden scope of the Commission's work to include advice and assistance to state legislative programs.
5. Appointment of a small executive committee of the Commission to advise the chairman on all matters needing immediate action.

With the exception of the last item, this program is based upon the platform and resolutions of the National Education Association.

The Executive Committee of the Legislative Commission

Whenever possible matters requiring action by the Legislative Commission will be referred to the whole membership. On certain occasions, how-

¹ Presented by George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y., in the absence of the chairman.

ever, when immediate action is necessary, this will not be possible. In such emergencies it will be helpful for the chairman to have the advice and assistance of a small executive committee whose proximity to Washington will enable the members to come to the capital upon short notice. Acting upon the authority granted him by the Commission, the chairman has appointed the following committee: Ben Graham, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; John K. Norton, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and chairman of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, New York, N. Y.; David Weglein, superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Md.; Jessie Gray, member, faculty of Philadelphia Normal School, Philadelphia, Pa.; Lee Kirkpatrick, superintendent of schools, Paris, Ky. One meeting of this committee was called on April 10 to advise and assist the chairman in assembling data to submit to the Secretary of the Interior on the following day.

Conferences with the Secretary of the Interior

After a number of conferences with high officials in Washington and Virginia, the chairman decided to lay before Hon. Harold L. Ickes, the Secretary of the United States Department of the Interior, certain aspects of education of national importance. On April 5 the chairman had the first conference with the secretary who gave him a very sympathetic hearing. He outlined to Secretary Ickes three propositions to be placed before the President of the United States at the time the secretary deemed best. These propositions, which were submitted to Mr. Ickes along with supporting data prepared in advance at the headquarters of the National Education Association, were:

1. A radio address in behalf of education by President Roosevelt over a nationwide hookup
2. Federal emergency aid for public school districts
3. The reorganization of federal educational activities.

The secretary's request for further data on certain phases of these questions necessitated a second conference with him. To prepare this additional data, the chairman asked the executive committee of the Legislative Commission to meet him at the headquarters building of the National Education Association. Paul Mort, director of the School of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, was asked to meet with the executive committee, and his suggestions and advice were very helpful. At this conference additional information desired by the secretary was discussed and assembled; and on April 11, it was presented to Mr. Ickes by your chairman. It is the opinion of the chairman that the interest of the Secretary of the Interior in public education in this country was thereby strengthened. A stirring radio address in support of adequate educational opportunities by Secretary Ickes on May 20 may be interpreted as the Administration's recognition of the soundness and justification of the appeals laid before the secretary.

Conference with Vocational Educational Leaders

Even before his succession to this position, the chairman of the Legislative Commission felt that a more sympathetic understanding between those engaged in general and vocational education would result in more solid support of all educational facilities. Accordingly the development of such a relationship was one of the first things attempted by the chairman. On March 13, your chairman arranged an all-day conference at the headquarters building of the National Education Association and invited representatives from both the general and vocational fields of education to attend. After a full day's discussion, the following points were agreed upon:

1. We approve the principle of responsibility and aid for education from the federal government;
2. We believe that support should be given at once by the federal government to the states to meet the present emergency in general education;
3. We believe that federal aid as now constituted should be continued and extended as needs require; and
4. We believe a conference should be held with the President of the United States for the purpose of soliciting his support for public education.

Efforts to Help with the Reorganization of Educational Activities

In line with the resolutions of the National Education Association as well as the program adopted by the Legislative Commission, the chairman has devoted considerable time to conferences with high officials in the United States Government on the question of the reorganization of federal educational activities. Several trips to Washington have been made for this purpose. Besides the important conferences already mentioned with the Secretary of the Interior, the chairman contacted Hon. Swagar Sherley, Hon. Daniel C. Roper, and others who did the preliminary work on President Roosevelt's reorganization plan. After the new administration came into office, contacts were established with Hon. Lewis Douglas, Director of the Budget, who has the program for reorganization in charge. Correspondence setting forth the aims and hopes of educators was carried on with Director Douglas and a copy of *Federal Relations to Education*, the final report of the National Advisory Committee on Education, was placed before him. Conferences on this subject of reorganization were held with the United States Senators from Virginia and other leaders in both houses of Congress.

Conclusion

Sixteen years ago the National Education Association alarmed by the weaknesses of the public schools revealed by draft figures for the World War, appointed in cooperation with the Department of Superintendence a Joint Commission on the National Emergency in Education. A survey of the educational situation thruout the country by the Commission disclosed a shameful neglect of the rights of childhood in many sections. The Association immediately accepted this challenge to its leadership and projected

a national program of education which aroused the country to the necessity of providing educational facilities more comparable to our national needs. In 1920 the Commission submitted its final report and on its recommendation the present Legislative Commission was established to carry out the program of the Emergency Commission.

Today the progress of education thruout the country faces a more perilous situation than it faced in 1917, and gains of a decade are in grave danger of being swept away. Again the Association has accepted the challenge and has appointed a second Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education which is now studying the unfortunate educational situation created by the present financial depression with a view to recommending policies for the reconstruction of American education.

It was the consensus of those attending the meeting at Minneapolis that the Legislative Commission should aid in every possible way to carry out recommendations proposed by the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. The chairman of the Legislative Commission calls upon every member to cooperate with the Joint Commission to the end that school systems everywhere may continue to offer that educational opportunity to every boy and girl which the welfare of the social order demands.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES

ANNA LAURA FORCE, PRINCIPAL, LAKE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL,
DENVER, COLO., *Chairman*

On account of reduced revenues for schools, the Committee has never had more serious problems to consider relating to teacher retirement allowances. In some states the teachers are not enrolled in any joint-contributory retirement plan. Under present conditions, they may be unable to provide for their own security in old age. In some states, retirement systems that had already proved inadequate now influence public opinion against retirement systems in general. Even where systems have been operating on a sound basis, increasing pressure is being exerted to undermine their organization.

Now is the time to reaffirm the Committee's statement of the fundamental principles of a teacher retirement system.¹ Especially appropriate are the principles that recommend joint support of retirement systems, regular accumulation of funds, maintenance of reserves, and return of accumulated deposits.

In the light of present conditions, the Committee wishes to supplement and reinforce the principles, by stating that:

1. The integrity of the retirement funds must be preserved.
2. Adjustments, even tho temporary, in the administration of the retirement funds, should be based only upon expert advice and careful study.

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. "Fundamental Principles of a Teacher Retirement System." *Research Bulletin* 8:226-29; November, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

3. Expert supervision should govern the investment and accounting of retirement funds.
4. Retrenchments should not lead school systems to retire competent, experienced teachers, involuntarily, immediately upon attaining the age for optional retirement.
5. School systems at present unable to adopt retirement provisions for their employees, should continue, nevertheless, to study the problem.

Committee members will be especially interested in the report of 1932-33 retirement legislation. Nineteen states and the Territory of Hawaii considered retirement proposals during legislative sessions in 1932-33. A total of 62 bills was introduced. Twenty-one bills were passed and approved. Of the 21 bills defeated, 12 never came to a final vote. Final action has not been reported on 20 bills, 4 of which have been enacted and await approval. In 1930-31, teacher retirement bills before state legislatures numbered 34. The increase in 1932-33 results from the introduction in several states of measures attempting to cope with present decreased school revenues. How do the 1932-33 proposals and enactments affect the status of teacher retirement systems in this country? What temporary financial adjustments have been made in administering the funds? The introductory statement in the report points out only the most significant measures. The state-by-state review describes the 62 bills introduced.

Teacher retirement systems in effect—In 1933 New Mexico adopted a law to establish, under control of the state board of education, a joint-contributory retirement system for teachers in the public schools and higher institutions. This law will not take effect until January 1, 1934. A bill to provide pensions for disabled public-school teachers in Delaware, was passed by the state legislature, but has yet to receive the governor's approval. Virginia and Delaware defeated in 1932 and 1933, respectively, a proposed statewide retirement bill for teachers. In 1933 bills attempted to repeal state retirement laws operating for teachers in Arizona, Maryland, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

Payments from public funds—A third of the retirement bills concerned state contributions to teacher retirement systems. Maine altered the method of making payments to the retirement fund established for teachers entering service after July 1, 1924. The Connecticut legislature included in 1933-35 budget an amount sufficient only to maintain the retirement fund on a cash basis, but later adopted a measure to prevent temporary suspension of the statute that requires the pension fund to be maintained on a reserve basis. A special appropriation bill, enacted and approved in 1933, makes up a deficiency of \$1,500,000 due the School Employees' Retirement System from state funds in Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania will extend over a longer period than originally contemplated, the payments on account of prior service. Similar action is under consideration in the Territory of Hawaii. Nevada removed the tax levied by counties that supplemented the state tax in support of the teacher retirement fund. This action is not expected to interfere with the payment of allowances in this state. Illinois proposes to increase

the tax rate for the state teacher retirement fund. Bills to eliminate amounts contributed from public sources in California, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin did not come to a vote. A bill recently before the Washington state legislature to prevent payment of pensions from public funds, was not reported out of committee.

Members' deposits and equities—New Jersey and New York enacted laws to provide that current salary adjustments will not affect retirement deposits or benefits. A Pennsylvania law now permits teachers to decide whether they will contribute on the basis of full or reduced salary. The state and local districts' contributions will be based on the salary on which the teacher elects to contribute. A decision of the Connecticut state supreme court in its March, 1933 term, indicates that teachers' deposits toward retirement annuities shall be based on salary actually received, altho such salary may have been reduced below contract salary. Illinois proposes to increase the amount required in teachers' deposits. In this same state, the senate committee recommended for passage a bill to protect pension rights of Chicago school employees, if forced to leave school work on account of non-payment of salaries. Bills were defeated in California and New York to retire teachers at age 65; and in Pennsylvania, to retire teachers at age 62. At least two of these bills provided for an allowance proportionate to that originally promised.

Minnesota, which was the only state to enact a Teachers' Retirement Law in 1931, reports that this law has operated to the entire satisfaction of its sponsors. The confidence in the new law is evidenced by the steady growth in membership. The 1933 legislature did not attempt to amend or alter the law in any sense, due largely to the vigilance of the teachers of the state and to representatives in the legislature friendly to their cause.

Progress in teacher retirement legislation, according to reports from Idaho, New Hampshire, South Carolina, Texas, Utah, and West Virginia, must await more favorable conditions. The Kansas State Teachers Association contemplates establishing a fund, thru increased membership dues, to provide for its own members at retirement. In Colorado reorganization of the state financial system, of necessity, takes precedence over teacher retirement legislation. The Nebraska State Teachers Association reports as follows: "Because of peculiar economic conditions, we did not present retirement legislation to the 1933 session. We have continued our state committee on retirement and we have attempted to further local interest by means of articles in our state journal, radio addresses, and a presentation of retirement facts to group meetings and conventions. It is our intention to continue our professional interest and, as far as possible, our statewide interest in this very important problem, until such time as we again feel able to present a bill for legislative enactment."

Following an actuarial study of data on the teaching personnel in Louisiana, a committee of the state teachers association drew up a joint-contributory retirement plan, to be administered by a special board of trustees. The April, 1932 *Journal of the Louisiana Teachers' Association* contains the details of this retirement plan. When the State Committee on Teacher Retirement

ment completes its program, the campaign for a retirement law will be in the hands of the state association's Legislative Committee. However, teacher retirement legislation in Louisiana must be subordinated to the two other projects of increasing state appropriations for public schools and securing adequate support for state institutions.

The Committee of One Hundred on Retirement Allowances has summarized in this report the teacher retirement legislative proposals or enactments in 1932-33, using material published in journals of state teachers associations and reports submitted by school officials. The state-by-state summary brings up-to-date the review of legislation contained in the Committee's report of July, 1931.

While some of the proposals or enactments during the two-year period are encouraging, every legislative year has its quota of destructive measures threatening established retirement funds or the general progress of teacher retirement. In 1933 there were attempts to repeal three statewide teacher retirement laws, to place restrictions on the use of state funds for retirement purposes, and to reduce or eliminate amounts contributed from public sources. Proposals to remove the tenure rights of teachers who reach the age for optional retirement, accompanied the general movement for economy in school expenditures.

The cooperation and enlightened efforts of teachers, legislators, and friends of public education, prevented the passing of these destructive measures. Let us bear in mind that in such cases the campaign of education, carried on by our Committee during the past years, is now revealing its results. However, the Committee must not overlook the effect of such proposals upon the status of established retirement funds or upon retirement provisions as a whole. It is evident that the Committee cannot at this time afford to relax its campaign of education and research.

The 1932 report formed the basis for several of the Committee's activities during the past year. An article entitled "Some Accomplishments of Teacher Retirement Systems," summarizing data in the report, was sent to secretaries of state teachers associations for publication in the state education journals. In November, 1932, representatives of the National Council of Teachers' Retirement Systems and the Committee held a conference at headquarters. The data included in the 1932 report formed the main topic for discussion.

The Committee has supplied material from its files to assist the Association in preparing several publications; namely:

1. "Estimating State School Efficiency." *Research Bulletin* 10:75-132; May, 1933.
2. *Graduate Theses on Teacher Retirement*, May, 1932. Mimeographed. 10p.
3. *State School Legislation, 1931*. Studies in State Educational Administration No. 10, February, 1932.
4. *State School Legislation, 1932*. Educational Research Service Circular No. 5, April, 1933.

The chairman and other Committee representatives have answered many questions during 1932-33. A few of these inquiries were:

1. What age is required for retirement of teachers who have prior-service credit? Seventy years old.
2. What information is available describing retirement provisions for college and university professors? In some states the retirement system includes, as I read about one state this morning, these institutions. The new law in New Mexico includes the higher institution and anyone wanting information on this, I will refer to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
3. What compulsory retirement age has been established by school systems? Mainly seventy.
4. What are the names of some of the consulting actuaries employed by teacher retirement systems? The names of competent actuaries are furnished by the American Institute of Actuaries. This information can also be given to you by the Research Division.
5. Where is information available relating to retirement of teachers in foreign countries? I will refer you to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

The 1932 report developed from a study of 45 state, territorial, and local teacher retirement systems in operation. In the present report, the Committee brings up-to-date its 1931 statement concerning current legislation, and the number and location of the systems in effect. A brief list of publications issued during 1932-33 by the National Education Association, and other organizations and authorities, is also included.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RURAL EDUCATION¹

WILLIS A. SUTTON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ATLANTA, GA., *Chairman*

The Committee on Rural Education submits the following recommendations:

(1) Whereas, in the thinking of our agricultural leadership the place and purpose of education is definitely defined as never before and the recovery of agriculture as a basic industry along with the security of our civilization depends upon the education of our people and their willingness to cooperate unselfishly, we declare it to be more important than ever for the schools of the farmers' children to be assured proper support, intelligent direction, and efficient operation, to meet the changing needs of this transition period. We recommend that the teachers of the nation, rural and urban, become more sensitive to the needs of the rural schools and more active in properly interpreting them to themselves and to the public.

(2) In order to accomplish this end, to preserve gains already made, to see that no child is deprived of a minimum program of education, and to achieve steadier progress toward the equalization of educational opportunity and support, we reiterate our previous finding that rural education should be represented on the staff of the National Education Association and repeat the recommendation that this member of the headquarters staff be given the responsibility of interpreting rural education. Without such specialized service, the progress of meeting the needs of half the school children of our

¹ Presented by Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa, in the absence of the chairman.

land is haphazard, slow, rather than deliberate and accelerated. We hope the exigencies of the budget will not too long delay the recommendation of this most important expansion of the service of the office of the National Education Association.

(3) We note that the Rural Department has reduced its requests to the Budget Committee from \$500 to \$300 and we respectfully request that the same be allowed, that the Department may continue to function on behalf of our rural-school children.

(4) We point out the increased migration from urban to rural communities and the educational implications of the same. We stress the need of a constructive and comprehensive program of rural education during this period of reconstruction, and to that end we recommend that the Committee on Rural Education be continued.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO COOPERATE WITH THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COLORED SCHOOLS

N. C. NEWBOLD, STATE DIRECTOR OF NEGRO EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION, RALEIGH, N. C., *Chairman*

This committee was established by the National Education Association at the Philadelphia meeting in 1925 having its duties enlarged at subsequent meetings of the Association. Its main objectives are (1) to cooperate with and encourage the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, (2) thru subcommittees, to encourage studies in problems of negro education and life, and (3) to help promote interracial goodwill. This Committee holds two annual meetings—one at the regular summer meeting of the National Education Association, the other at the February meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

While tentative reports in progress of several of the subcommittees have been received, only one or two are prepared in written form and included in this general report.

The subcommittee, working in cooperation with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, is doing what it can to help this important association of teachers keep going at reasonably satisfactory levels in these trying times, but no formal report is filed.

The subcommittee to find out what white colleges and universities of the South are doing to promote wholesome interracial relations, reports that more than forty colleges sent representatives to George Peabody College in August 1932 for a three-day conference on this subject. R. R. Moton, principal of Tuskegee Institute, was invited to deliver an address to this group in conjunction with 2,000 teachers and public-school administrators attending Peabody summer school. The report was published in pamphlet form under the title of *Education and Racial Adjustment* by Peabody College. A similar conference is called to meet at Peabody in August 1933, at

which time very definite reports of what these colleges are doing will be made, including a source book and syllabus on Negro life and education for use in these white colleges.

The subcommittee to find out and secure the publications of important theses and dissertations that may contribute to the improvement of Negro education and health is doing effective work, but has no formal report at this time.

No definite report of the subcommittee to study the distribution of federal funds for Negro education is filed.

The subcommittee (1) to study what is included in elementary and high-school history and civics textbooks, and (2) to promote a moving talking picture portraying Negro history and life in America, makes the following written report of progress.

The subcommittee appointed in Washington on February 22, 1932, was reappointed by President Joseph Rosier in 1932, the present personnel being S. L. Smith, Chairman; Charles S. Johnson of Fisk University, Arthur D. Wright of Washington, and W. T. B. Williams of Tuskegee Institute. The report of this committee in two parts follows under (a) and (b).

- (a). *The Negro in textbooks*—Before offering any specific suggestions the Committee is attempting to encourage graduate students and efficient organizations to make careful studies to see to what extent this race is included in textbooks, beginning with history and civics books, adopted in southern states for basal and supplementary textbooks in elementary and high schools.

Thru a small grant from the Southern Interracial Commission, James O. Butler of Tennessee, a graduate student of Peabody College, majoring in history, made a survey in 1932-33 and wrote his thesis for his master's degree on *The Treatment of the Negro in Southern Textbooks*. His study includes the examination of sixty textbooks now in use in fifteen southern states. He has found that the writers of history do not ignore the Negro in American life but that more space and attention are given to the Negro as a slave prior to 1860 than is devoted to this race as citizens and as a factor in modern life since 1860. Of the twenty-eight civics and problems of democracy textbooks examined, nineteen make no mention of the Negro.

Another graduate student of Peabody College, majoring in problems of a dual system of education made a careful study of some textbooks used in upper elementary grades to determine to what extent the Negro is included. His findings are substantially the same as those of James O. Butler.

During the past year a committee of white and Negro educators under the direction of Charles S. Johnson of Fisk University and Fred McCuiston of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has been preparing a source book on the Negro covering the various phases of his development and progress. The purpose of this source book is to supply authentic information and materials for use by instructors in white and Negro colleges in courses or discussions dealing with the Negro. Writers of future textbooks would find this source book most helpful in furnishing authentic material for integration into elementary and high-school as well as college textbooks.

The subcommittee proposes to encourage further research work on this subject the incoming year, including a careful examination of adopted readers, and books of literature, music, and art for elementary and high schools, and hopes to make a report on these at the meeting of the National Education Association in 1934. No specific recommendations will be made until the facts have been gathered and carefully analyzed by some of the ablest con-

sultants available. In the meantime, the committee hopes that school administrators, authors, and others may give some thought to this subject and offer suggestions.

- (b). *Moving picture portraying Negro life in America*—The committee's progress report on this project was made a year ago. Since that time the work has not developed much further, due to economic conditions.

In recent weeks the chairman of the subcommittee has renewed correspondence with the moving picture producers and distributors, and is encouraged over the outlook in this project.

The committee is of the opinion that the picture should be built around the Negro's contributions to modern progress and civilization thru the medium of business, cultural, and educational accomplishments, and that it should include such entertainment features as will appeal to all races in all sections of America. The chairman has had conferences here in Chicago this week with one of the ablest consultants in educational moving pictures of America, who came here from New York for this purpose. He offers important suggestions and seems willing to cooperate fully with the committee.

The subcommittee's greatest need in both of these projects is a small amount of money to help do the necessary preliminary studies.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

ANNIE C. WOODWARD, SOMERVILLE HIGH SCHOOL, SOMERVILLE, MASS.,
Chairman

Since its creation the Committee has sought by every means at its command to emphasize the contribution which education can make to the solution of international difficulties. The report of the chairman this year is intended: *first*, to take stock of some of the most significant progress that has been made in this field; and *second*, to outline some of the problems which now face us.

Recent Progress

In reviewing some of the gains that have recently been registered as a contribution of education to international understanding, only a few of the major fields can be mentioned.

Curriculum revision—The last fifteen years have witnessed great activity in the revision and improvement of school curriculums in all subjects and at all levels. In this process of improvement and modernization it was natural that international attitudes and ideals should receive prominent attention. It is not essential to place in the crowded curriculum of the common schools new courses of study, but to adjust materials to the studies already installed. Geography, history, civics, literature, the fine arts, commercial studies, and applied science offer abundant opportunities of this adjustment. Care must be taken to keep a level keel and not be carried away by the emotionalism so common where fundamental changes in attitudes are in the making.

The newer courses of study in history, geography, and social science have allotted a generous portion of time and material to the study of world prob-

lems. Here, for example, are some of the topics from the new state course of study adopted by South Dakota in 1932:

1. The development of worldwide methods of exchange
2. A study of group action
3. How men learned to overcome distance and time
4. How nations become interdependent thru the exchange of commodities.

Kansas has also undertaken a statewide program. Thru the initiative of the superintendent of schools and a group of graduate students, definite work was undertaken and a course of study prepared for the high schools of Wichita. This proved so constructive that the World Federation of Education Associations adjusted it to the Herman-Jordan plan. Under the state superintendent of public instruction it was placed in all schools as a part of the state course of study and definite credit given.

In Ithaca, New York, the last half of the ninth-grade study of social science is entitled: "Economic Problems: World Relations" and includes these six main headings:

1. Producing Goods
2. Exchanging Goods
3. Convenience of Trade
4. Management of Income
5. The Problems of World Peace
6. Changing Governments and International Relationships since the World War.

Similarly in Denver, Colorado, the last half of the ninth-grade social science course is devoted to a unit entitled "Governmental Civics and International Relations." Some schools follow a definite and impartial study of the League of Nations, the World Court, the International Labor Organization, the Pan American Union, and various other types of peace machinery. Thus, young people become informed about these powerful organizations to which our government sends representatives whether we are members or not. It is possible, not only to encourage the scientific study of these organizations, but also to keep cognizant of the events occurring daily in Geneva and elsewhere, in connection with such problems as disarmament, munitions embargoes, war debts, and foreign trade. Emphasis is put on the Kellogg-Briand Pact and, most recently, upon the speeches and messages of President Roosevelt. These are but a few of the new materials and courses of study that might be mentioned which give prominent education to the international point of view.

New textbooks—Along with the development of the course of study there has been a parallel trend in the content of social science textbooks. Even the titles of some of these newer books, *International Civics: the Community of Nations*, *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, *Nations As Neighbors*, *World History*, and the like, indicate the emphasis that is being placed on the international aspects of the social science curriculum.

Special school activities—In addition to the revision of courses of study to include references to international problems, there have been several attempts to develop an independent program of study and activities in international

goodwill in the elementary and secondary schools. Special courses in international relations have been offered in colleges and universities for many years and the practise of offering such courses is now quite general. The idea of giving special emphasis to international problems in high schools is, however, relatively new. One of the best illustrations of this development is the program of training in the world friendship which has been built up in the public-school system of Los Angeles. The book describing this course is now in its third edition. Copies of this book have been ordered by the hundreds for use in school systems in all parts of the country as well as in the foreign lands of France, Germany, Japan, Sweden, Switzerland, and South America. The Los Angeles program at present includes these phases:

1. Two or three times a year at the request of the superintendent, a teacher from each school in the city attends a meeting to hear a talk on world affairs given by some eminent authority. At these meetings plans for the teaching of international relations are discussed.

2. Special occasions, such as Armistice Day, November 11, Pan American Day, April 14, and World Goodwill Day, May 18, are celebrated every year by nearly every school in the city. Plays, pageants, songs, and addresses play important parts in these celebrations. The World Federation of Education Associations and the National Education Association have jointly prepared suggestions of procedures and materials to be used on such occasions. This is one of the most interesting and fruitful fields for cultivation. During the assembly period, students may give talks on important world happenings, may debate issues of various sorts, and present short dramas and musical and artistic exercises.

3. During the last five years an annual oratorical contest on world friendship has been held. Hundreds of students are involved in this enterprise. The winning orations are delivered at one of the sessions of the Los Angeles County Teachers Institute.

4. Over eighty schools exchange portfolios with schools in other lands. This exchange is carried on either thru the Junior Red Cross or thru the ministers of education in the foreign countries.

5. The League of Nations has been studied as an important international enterprise. Many high schools have presented in dramatic form a reproduction of an actual session of the Council or of the Assembly of the League.

6. World Friendship clubs have been organized in most of the high schools in the city and a federation of these clubs has been created. These organizations now have a membership of over 3000 boys and girls. They plan programs on international subjects.

7. About eighty schools prepared exhibits for the meeting of the National Education Association in Los Angeles in 1931. These exhibits displayed the interdependence of all nations.

What is being done in Los Angeles is also being done in similar fashion by many other school systems. Boston, Minneapolis, St. Louis, and many others could be mentioned.

Recent research in world citizenship—One of the most encouraging trends in the field of education for world citizenship has been the constantly increasing amount of accurate information on problems related to this field. When the Committee on International Relations was created, practically nothing had been done to study this project objectively. Today a large body of specific information exists which has a definite relation to our problem. We have

important studies on student opinion and public opinion with respect to the teaching of international goodwill and peace. We have discovered many tools and methods for modifying prevailing points of view toward more constructive and wholesome objectives. We have made important progress in our ability to measure the results of our efforts.

Activities of teachers organizations—An important item of progress in the last fifteen years has been the degree to which local, state, and national teachers organizations have taken an interest in the relationship which education may have to the solution of international problems. In Texas, Massachusetts, California, Colorado, Minnesota, Missouri, Illinois, and elsewhere the state and local teachers associations have appointed committees to study this whole matter and see what the schools can do about it. The work of the Colorado Committee is excellent and fairly typical. The Committee aimed to emphasize the great interest and importance of its field. Representatives were appointed in every important school system to cooperate in carrying on activities. Circulars were sent to rural teachers thru the county superintendent. These circulars carried an endorsement by the state superintendent of public instruction and contained suggestions for reading and devices for teaching international goodwill. On World Goodwill Day programs were given in many schools. A list of recommended books and periodicals for the study of international problems was published in the journal of the state education association. The State Federation of Women's Clubs was very helpful in the work of the Committee. International clubs in the high schools were established and international correspondence was fostered. In all of its work the main reliance and hope of the Committee has centered around the usual class instruction and school routine. It has not urged the introduction of new subjectmatter, but has sought to capitalize the methods and emphasize the attitudes in the teaching of the present program.

World Federation of Education Associations—The Committee on International Relations has always had close and friendly contact with the World Federation of Education Associations. The first chairman of our Committee is now the Secretary-General of the World Federation and his first report as chairman of our Committee urged the calling of the conference in San Francisco in 1923 which resulted in the establishment of the first world organization of educational interests. Since that time the World Federation has held a series of important biennial meetings and a number of special conferences. It has organized international committees to study problems of common interest to the school people of all lands. It has encouraged the international exchange of teachers and students. It recently arranged a most successful international broadcast in recognition of World Goodwill Day. It should in time become a great clearinghouse of ideas and ideals for world understanding.

Teachers accept a new responsibility—The most important gain that has been registered in the last fifteen years cannot be described in statistical terms. It is, however, the gain which means most to the accomplishment of our objective. Teachers thruout the United States have become increasingly aware of their opportunity and responsibility in forming attitudes which will be

favorable to the peaceful settlement of international issues. Once this attitude becomes well established among the teachers of America, it will be a matter of relatively little importance what particular methods are used in teaching it. Without this spirit the most elaborate program of international activities and the most effective formal teaching methods are very nearly useless.

Future Problems

Our review of some of the achievements of the past indicates only too clearly that most of our work still lies ahead of us. Have we developed sufficient world-mindedness to solve the problems that have arisen and will continue to arise in this new interdependent world? Have we reached that stage of enlightened nationalism which enables us to understand that no country can prosper at the expense of others? Have we begun to realize that the nations of the earth must stop fighting each other and unite against the common enemies of mankind: crime, disease, and poverty? The gains that we have made need to be consolidated and further advances must be made all along the line. As a conclusion to this report a few of the most important current problems will be mentioned.

The education of teachers—Altho progress has been made in some institutions, the education of teachers at present is not adequate in quantity or quality to develop the broadminded, well-informed recruits which the teaching profession must have if it is to make a significant contribution to the solution of any of the great social and economic problems which face us. Many of our textbooks on educational philosophy and educational sociology give inadequate attention to the implications of world interdependence for education. Traditional content and methods can no longer serve adequately. There is need for a broadening and enriching of the program of teacher training so that there may be added to mere professional technic those social attitudes and ideals which are so much more important than any teaching method can possibly be. Many colleges are already working on this idea. Under the direction of Henry L. Smith of the University of Indiana, working with the World Federation of Education Associations, much pioneering has been done. The Herman-Jordan plan will contain valuable materials on this phase of the work. Comparative education, comparative governments, international law, international machinery for settling disputes, world civics, the community aspect of great literatures, and applied science and its universality are appropriate elements of professional training in the field of education.

Interest on the part of state and local education associations—Our state and local education associations have not yet given adequate attention to this important problem. Every one of these associations should have a committee on international relations which would consider ways and means for awakening the teaching profession to its responsibility in this field. Such a committee could stimulate the holding of round-table conferences in each school system in the state to consider ways and means for teaching international understanding. In all of this work the Committee on International Relations of the

National Education Association should serve as a center of information and as a clearinghouse for facts and procedures.

Interchange of students and teachers—The interchange of students and teachers with foreign countries should become much more common than it is at present.

A philosophy of education in terms of world citizenship—Into the working philosophy of every teacher we must incorporate the concept of world citizenship as an educational goal—not as a separate and unrelated objective, but as an integral part of the whole educational program.

It is evident that our young people need training in new fields. To live in this day of rapid steamships, navigation of the air, hourly news service, and radio, they need a new training which will enable them to react in a wholesome way to world news. Newspapers today are filled with news from the four corners of the earth and our students must interpret the happenings in London, Paris, Geneva, Tokyo, and other distant parts of the earth as readily and as accurately as the news from Washington, New York, and Chicago. They need to know something of the elements of international law, treaty making, comparative government, international trade, international banking, international exchange, and the exchange of cultures. Persons who have this new training will make better bankers, better importers and exporters, better lawyers, better statesmen, and better plain citizens. The schools must not be allowed to trail the procession. They must sense the future and the needs of the people in an advanced society.

Continued investigations—In education for world citizenship we shall become more and more successful as we come to know more and more definitely about the psychology involved, the social background against which we must work, the tools that we have to use, and the degree of success achieved. It is indeed true in this field as in other fields that research and facts can never be a substitute for enthusiasm and ideals. Nevertheless we can all work better in the light than in the dark, and there is great need for further research to throw light on the difficult and complex problems involved in helping boys and girls to become men and women fit to survive in a complex and interdependent culture.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL-ECONOMIC GOALS OF AMERICA

FRED J. KELLY, CHIEF, DIVISION OF COLLEGES AND PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS,
U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C., *Chairman*

In recent years, many studies and reports have been made of educational objectives. One of the most significant of such was the report about fifteen years ago by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. This report set up seven objectives: health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, civic education, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. These constituted a conception of education's responsibility for social welfare far in advance of previously stated objectives.

Teachers have been busily at work since the report was issued trying to make the adjustments in curriculum and method which the attainment of these objectives call for.

In endeavoring to make these adjustments teachers have been and still are constantly confronted with questions one step more basic than even these fundamental objectives. Health education, for example, can do little to correct inherited weaknesses of body and native incapacity of mind. Worthy home membership can hardly be fostered in homes which are themselves unworthy. Vocational education can train for vocations but the need is for a more socialized attitude on the part of those controlling man's work. Civic education, yes, but for what kind of society? Who is the good citizen? Similarly with all the objectives. To fit for social living calls for the answer to a prior question: "What kind of society is it into which the educated person is to fit?"

It was for the study of this prior question, "What kind of society does America want?" that the National Education Association created the committee on the Social-Economic Goals of America. This committee now submits its report in tentative form.

In a matter so basic as national goals it seemed to the committee appropriate to invite wide criticism of its first formulation as a basis for further consideration. Members of the Representative Assembly are urged to read the report and submit their reactions to the Committee.

Having submitted the report in printed form, no extended oral report is called for. What I shall say in brief interpretation of the report, is not said in the name of the Committee. I shall speak as an individual who merely happens to be chairman of the Committee.

A letter was recently received by the President of the United States from a very intelligent citizen. This citizen, while commending the present national program of economic rehabilitation, said that there was one serious omission. The young people—high-school and college graduates—were not being enlisted in the program. These young people, stunned by the tragedy of coming up to the door of the adult world to find the placard, "no help wanted," are wandering away with dejected spirits, and with shattered morale. "What is needed," went on this citizen, "is a war."

He did not mean a war of guns or a war between nations. But a peacetime war, a battle for a cause in which the young people could enlist. A cause into which the young people of America could throw their enthusiasm, their idealism, their courage.

When this letter came to my attention I said at once, "That's right. We have no cause for which our young people want to fight—nothing that binds our people together in a common struggle." Yet, probably at no time in American history have there been more flagrant and widespread violations of those simple human rights, the historical ideals of America for which man has always been willing to fight than prevail in 1933. And it is my opinion that these violations exist in large part because, as the frontier has vanished and technology has ushered in the new day, we have not set up the machinery

which is necessary under these conditions to enlist the intelligent men and women in this country in a crusade to keep those simple human rights as the heritage of all the people.

The machinery necessary to rebuild a national *esprit de corps* to electrify our young people with a purpose, the basis of a high morale, involves at least two things. First, the historic ideals of this country must be restated in terms charged with new meaning by the conditions that prevail today. We need a sort of 1933 version in social-economic terms of the Declaration of Independence and of the Preamble to the Constitution. The Committee Report which is in your hands is an attempt at that. The ten goals there stated are put forth as the inalienable rights of each individual. Let us name them:

1. A sound biological endowment. Every individual has a right to be well born.
2. Physical security. He has a right to have his inborn strengths conserved.
3. Effective participation in an evolving culture. He has a right to those skills, those knowledges, those standards, those esthetic and ethical values which will enable him to get the most out of and to give the most back to the culture of which he is a part.
4. An active, flexible personality. He has a right to such development as will enable him to attain to the highest which his native capacities make possible.
5. Induction into and progress in a satisfying occupation. He has a right to whatever joy the most fitting work can bring.
6. Economic security. There are goods enough for all. Brains and heart put into their distribution will prevent the recurrence of disgraceful times like these.
7. Mental security. Anguish of mind is as severe as pain of body.
8. Equality of opportunity. This is the primary virtue of the great American Dream.
9. Freedom. The most basic yearning of the human spirit.
10. Justice or fair play. The rules under which the game of life is played and the guarantee that the officials will call all the fouls in the game.

These ten goals seem basic to the life of today if democratic institutions are to persist. Would it not seem possible to enlist our generation in a struggle to bring them to realization?

The second thing necessary in the machinery required to build up a national *esprit de corps* is education—education such as will assure an understanding and support of these national goals by the people. Walter Lippmann well says: "The planning of a better industrial order is the easiest and smallest part of our task. The difficult part is not in the domain of the engineer, but in the domain of the statesman and educator. It consists in finding plans that can be made acceptable to democracy." Strange that we should continue so long to take an understanding of national goals for granted! Many European countries have long required a period of military training of their young men to prepare them to carry out their country's purpose. Now the need for a national *esprit de corps* is greater than ever before, but it demands not military training, but social and civic training. Our young men and women—old ones too for that matter—need to dedicate themselves as patriotically to the struggle to save our democratic plan of life from the forces that threaten it as ever young men dedicated themselves to national conquest or to national

defense. This is the real job of the schools, the colleges, the adult education agencies.

No one will suppose that I mean any superficial "hip, hip, hurrah" for the good old U. S. A. This situation calls for no dosing with 100 percent Americanism. Fundamental changes are needed in materials and methods of education from the kindergarten thru college. These changes will not be made, however, unless education accepts its responsibility to prepare our citizenry to understand the issues which are now basic in our national life.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

ELEANOR M. WITMER, LIBRARIAN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y., *Chairman*

The Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association has concerned itself during the past year with the following matters:

1. Setting up and maintaining expert advisory services on school library problems at the annual meetings of the National Education Association and of the Department of Superintendence.

2. Preparing for consideration by the National Society for the Study of Education the detailed outline of a proposed yearbook on school libraries.

3. Promoting the discussion of school library problems on the general programs of the National Education Association.

4. Submitting to the Committee on Resolutions of the National Education Association Department of Superintendence recommendations regarding the revision of standards for libraries in secondary schools.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL COMMISSION ON THE ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE

JAMES A. MOYER, STATE DIRECTOR OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION, STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, MASS., *President*

The ideal of educational opportunity for all is being abandoned in America today, at least temporarily. Reports from many parts of the country reveal the growing force of this reactionary movement. For months there have been unmistakable indications of such a tendency, especially in adult education. Today, in the face of enforced economy in municipal and state expenditures, there are increasing demands for curtailment of educational opportunities, not only for adults, but for children as well.

A committee of your National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life has studied the financing of adult education for the last three years. Its report, which is now available for distribution, is a valuable and timely contribution to this controversial question. Part of the report presents the recent

nities. The findings indicate that in those schools for adults where a fee is charged which is approximately equal to the cost of the instruction, educational and recreational standards have been maintained much more adequately than where adult education has been provided on a free basis. In most cases it has been the free program which has suffered drastic reduction or complete elimination. We may admit that adult education which is free to all is ideal, but in these times, adult education which tends to be more and more self-sustaining, is practical. And if we agree that the preservation of programs of education is our chief concern for the present, then we will do well to take a practical view of the situation.

What effects do the charging of fees have upon numbers of enrolments and educational accomplishments? How do these results compare with those in schools which charge no fees? The committee's report covers these questions in detail, and in addition to statistics, it includes the answers of leaders in education who have administered or supervised programs under both policies.

It is to be hoped earnestly that school administrators will study this report, particularly those in cities and towns in which further curtailment of educational and recreational activities is threatened. The report may show the way for a continuance of many adult opportunities that might otherwise be thrown overboard.

Another committee of the Commission has been studying educational and recreational opportunities for the enrichment of adult life, both urban and rural. The fact that the rural population of America today is nearly three millions larger than it was in 1928, and, indeed, larger than at any previous time in the history of the country, has led the committee to concentrate much of its attention upon the rural phase of the problem.

Before discussing some of the specific issues of rural life today, I should like to review briefly the history and causes of some of the recent migrations to and from cities.

The largest rural population in this country previous to this year was in 1910. From 1910 to 1928, there was a gradual but continuous migration from the farms and rural villages to the cities and large towns, especially to those that had large industries. Since 1929, however, the direction has changed. A migration greater than any in recorded history is now taking place, which is suddenly transferring millions of men, women, and children from the cities to the country districts.

There were two important reasons for the transfer of rural families to the cities from 1910 to 1928. The higher compensation that was offered in urban industries in comparison with the pay on the farms, was a vital factor. But many families deserted the farms and the rural villages, not for monetary reasons, but because parents wanted more and better educational and social opportunities for their children and themselves.

The question may well be asked today, "Will the families that have recently gone to the country be content to remain there when industrial conditions in the urban centers become more normal?" It is unlikely, I believe, that they

will remain where they now live, unless there is considerable improvement in educational and recreational opportunities, not only for children, but also for grown-ups.

With the assistance of one of the land-grant colleges and the National Recreation Association, a committee of the Commission has been investigating the usual recreational activities in rural communities. Their data show that there is a wide diversity of recreation, those of men and women in rough pioneer country being entirely different from the recreations of those living in villages. The principal recreations of villagers living near urban centers and the inhabitants of suburbs of large cities are: (1) listening to the radio; (2) seeing motion pictures; (3) riding in automobiles; (4) reading magazines, newspapers, and books from libraries; (5) playing cards; (6) gardening; (7) listening to phonograph records; (8) engaging in such out-of-door games as football, baseball, and tennis. In a rough pioneer life, there is usually very little formal recreation, but during slack seasons in northern climates there is hunting in winter and fishing in summer.

Because of the lack of satisfying recreation, secluded rural life produces, especially for women, many cases of serious mental ill health. Monotony without suitable recreation is often more than even strong minds can bear. For the family isolated from general community life, the availability of radio broadcasting equipment has been a means of mental salvation.

Mental ill health has a high percentage of prevalence among rural workers, due largely to the lack of suitable recreation. On the other hand, mental ill health is almost unknown among the male and female machine tenders in industrial villages and towns where there are fairly good conditions of employment, such as adequate housing, factory lunchrooms, accident and employment insurance, and old-age pensions.

Mental ill health is not confined, as we know, only to rural districts. It is a fact that education equivalent to high-school graduation and beyond increases the prevalence of serious mental ill health which, in the majority of cases, becomes permanent sometime in life. This fact may be better understood if we assume that half of this audience is made up of machine tenders with only an elementary education, working under wholesome conditions of employment, and that the other half is a better educated group with high-school graduation as a minimum attainment. In that case, the machine workers would be practically immune from serious mental ill health, but in the better educated group, certainly one out of six will sometime have a very serious mental disorder. In other words, more than 15 percent of a population having the educational advantages of the delegates to this convention will sometime be inmates in a sanitarium or asylum. Fifty percent of all hospital beds are occupied by adults suffering from nervous diseases.

Until recent years, the country church had an important stabilizing influence. It was a really effective social as well as religious institution. Unfortunately, the influence of the country church has dwindled as the well-to-do population has shifted from rural communities to large towns and cities. As

a result, village and country churches have been seriously weakened, and, in most districts, no adequate substitution has been made.

Because of this fact, it seems to me that there are enormous possibilities for the usefulness of rural consolidated schools in the field of adult education and recreation, especially in those communities in which elementary and secondary schools are combined. If a district is populated mostly by reasonably progressive families living on farms, with a sprinkling of families living in villages, excellent opportunities for adult education and recreation can be established. The consolidated school building for such a district might be in use nearly every evening in the week for some social activity. On week-ends, it might be used by the entire rural population of a district on Friday or Saturday evenings. The buses or other transportation equipment employed to carry the children to and from school could be used to transport the parents and the older boys and girls to the adult school for the late afternoon and evening sessions.

Public forums for the discussion of problems in economics, government, and current national and local events, have been recently established on a more or less experimental basis in several cities in this country.

In Des Moines an interesting and unique experiment in the educational use of leisure by adults has been in progress during five months of the last school year. The plan provides for discussion forums in the public school buildings of the city. The meetings are open to the public without admission charges and without cost to the taxpayer. The entire cost of the experiment is contributed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The control of the experiment, however, rests entirely with the Des Moines Board of Education.

Many persons regard this project as one of the most significant and hopeful of the recent educational enterprises that have been undertaken in this country. Such use of school buildings to lift the level of intelligence is a promising approach to an informed citizenship.

In the case of most city forums, especially in centers with a population of 100,000 or more, the cost is a considerable part of the city budget. In Des Moines, the annual cost is about \$25,000 a year. In a few cities the cost, except for heating, lighting, and janitor service, is contributed by those attending the forums. In some other cases, the total cost of the forums is paid by city taxation.

In rural districts, the superintendent of schools or a school principal is frequently the forum leader, and any resident of the community is permitted to take part in the discussions. As a rule, the groups in attendance are small. Most of those who are regular attendants are well acquainted. In a group of this kind the part that the leader takes is not very difficult. In fact, under these circumstances, a lively discussion is very easily stimulated. For the conduct of such projects in rural communities, no special school appropriations are necessary, as the expenses are almost negligible; usually the forum leader assumes responsibility for the necessary janitor service.

Adult Study Opportunities by Correspondence Instruction

The increasing adoptions of correspondence instruction as a method of adult learning are significant. Needs and ambitions of individuals are varied. Social and economic trends are changing rapidly. To keep pace with progress, adult education must be alert to provide generally opportunities for a continuing desire for learning and for the wholesome utilization of leisure time. For these ends, correspondence instruction is in many ways ideally suited. One of the committees of the Commission has presented during the last year a report on this subject which is now available for distribution.

In the adult education schools of large cities usually it is economically possible to offer a large number of courses of study in classes; but in times of enforced economy, there is usually considerable curtailment or elimination of these opportunities. In the ordinary-sized evening school, even in small towns but especially in rural sections, the offerings for adult learning are greatly limited and in many cases are not found at all. Supervised correspondence instruction permits the efficient organization of one class or several classes in which if need be, as many subjects can be taught as there are students, and this is possible by the correspondence method at a reasonable expense under the direction of one able and versatile teacher.

Not only does the correspondence course lend itself favorably to use in adult evening schools, but as well to the isolated individual who dwells far from the centers of learning. To him is offered the opportunity for taking courses in many subjects which lead to an enrichment of life and provide an escape from educational stagnation. The recent high-school graduate may continue his study thru these courses, nurses training in hospitals are employing this method for completion of a high-school education, and the correspondence instruction is lending itself very readily to emergency programs of adult education for the unemployed.

Several hundred communities are using correspondence courses selected from a list of seventy-five or more offerings. Among others, automobile mechanics, mechanical drawing, elementary accounting, household management, aviation, radio, and interior home decoration are popular choices. The work so far has been well done and the success is notable. Significant progress in the development of this method of adult education has been made in Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania, as well as in some of the Canadian provinces.

Planning for Future Leisure

Far too many people have the idea that when educators speak of leisure, they mean mere idleness. If the almost certain increased leisure of the future that is to come especially to urban communities will result in nothing better than sheer idleness, our present civilization is very much in danger. Let us remember that leisure was understood by many of the early Greeks to be a time for study for its own sake, a time which might be devoted to desired kinds of work. In fact, in the Greek language, the word for leisure and school is the same. Unfortunately, this ancient idea is now only the vision of the idealist and has not gripped the imagination and the desire of the present-

day man in the street. The latter during his necessary employment has his mind still fixed on the expectation of the time—daily, weekly, or annually—when he does not have to work.

Pauperism and the possession of wealth are both social conditions that indicate opposite types of the leisure class. Social status is the separating barrier between these two leisure classes of society. Civilization advances have always been accomplished, and may be measured by the extent that worthily occupied leisure, or what I like to call "busy leisure," has become available.

In the early civilizations, it was the institution of slavery that provided by means of a compulsory distribution of labor the leisure for a favored few to promote advances in civilization. In more recent times, especially since the industrial revolution, the man-power per individual was enormously increased, so that some leisure became available for all in addition to the total leisure of a few, as in the period of human slavery. In the human-slavery period, philosophers, writers, and artists made as a rule, profitable, worthwhile use of the leisure that the work of slaves made possible for them; and doubtless, this leisure when thus used produced enriched, more cultured, and more desirable lives. It thereby added a great deal to the progress of civilizing influences. But as President Cutten, a member of this Commission, points out, such advancement of civilization was accomplished at the expense of meaner and less desirable living on the part of large numbers of slaves, and later of multitudes of free industrial workers employed for long hours per day. This has been the prevailing social condition for many centuries. An earlier generation decreed that the whole time of the majority of people should be devoted to work. That phase is now passing, probably never to return. Now, we have a different problem on our hands. It is the workers themselves and their increasing leisure that we must consider. It is their contribution to the upbuilding or lowering of the benefits of civilization that takes place during the leisure that is coming to them in larger and larger amounts, generation after generation, that must be studied.

During the last half century the average work week of those employed in industry has been reduced about 10 hours per week in a generation, and well-informed economists estimate that by 1940 the average work-week of those employed in industry may be five hours per day for five days in a week.

Effects of Mechanization of Industry

One of the unfortunate effects of the mechanization of industry is the stunting of the creative abilities of those employed for machine operation. The old-fashioned worker in a trade had many satisfactions in his daily work, and the skilled artisan of other years was often an artist as well as mechanic. In other words, industrial mechanization has taken from most workers the joy of accomplishment that historically has been associated with the handicrafts. These are serious deficiencies of modern industrial employment which, however, can be effectively remedied by worthwhile and planned leisure-time activities, in which recreation must play an important part. Without whole-

some, worthwhile recreation, mechanization and commercialization make a mockery of leisure time.

Industrial employment should not, however, because of these deficiencies, be scorned as, obviously, a return to a less mechanical existence is entirely out of the question. Further, the machine age has brought to this generation higher standards of living and more generally distributed culture than there has been in any age in world history. The effect of the machine on the operator has always been exaggerated, especially by those who had very little mechanical insight or interest. Thus, Carlisle, Thackeray, Tennyson, Browning, Goethe, Matthew Arnold, and Phillip Gibbs have railed against the "unspiritual civilization" of a machine age, without taking into account the fact that from the beginning of history, there have been advances in general culture only to the extent that commerce and industry have prospered.

It is obviously appropriate at this time to question and investigate how leisure time is used by the large numbers of men and women now out of employment. Relatively few persons know what to do with themselves in such times of emergency. Many stagnate mentally because they have never developed any special interests or hobbies, and because their hands have not been trained for the performance of the so-called skills.

In many respects the present is a suitable time to look about for the purpose of discovering the innumerable ways of enriching the lives of men and women by education and recreation that will provide for their greatest security, comfort, and happiness.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION¹

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y., *President*

The report is a report of the study made for a year by a special committee of the Council on the present social-economic situation. The report consists of a set of twenty-one pronouncements. Fifteen of those were adopted at the meeting of the Council in Minneapolis, and have been published and constitute the major part of the report. At the meeting of the Council held immediately prior to this Assembly, the Council added six additional pronouncements.

1. In a modern democracy, organized education—meaning primarily schools, colleges, universities, and other adult educational agencies—holds the key to social advance. Therefore, organized education, along with other social institutions must accept its fair share of criticism for the social and economic ills which afflict American society. The deep-seated nature of these ills imposes new and greatly increased responsibilities upon education.

2. To meet these responsibilities, teachers must be acquainted with the basic principles of the social sciences, conversant with the issues involved in current social life, and willing to participate in solving the pressing problems now before the American people.

¹ Presented by Joseph H. Saunders, Superintendent of Schools, Newport News, Virginia, in the absence of the president.

3. The education of every prospective teacher should include such social science as will assure an understanding of the principles underlying social living. To accomplish this end, teacher-training institutions are urged to make suitable changes in their curriculums, and certificating agencies are urged to include among the requirements for all certificates adequate study of the social sciences.

4. Members of college faculties who are responsible for the education of prospective teachers should themselves be broadly educated and should possess a keen appreciation of the social significance of scholarship. To this end, graduate schools are urged to modify the curriculums designed to prepare for college teaching so as to avoid over-specialization and to assure an effective integration of the entire program for the education of teachers.

5. State departments of education, county and city superintendents, and others in like positions of authority and leadership, should encourage and ultimately require teachers in service to have a broad understanding of social and economic issues.

6. As one means of facilitating the in-service training of teachers, in the social sciences, the National Education Association is invited to devise some plan whereby authoritative materials necessary to keep teachers conversant with current social-economic developments may be made most readily available to all the members of the profession.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

DONALD DU SHANE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COLUMBUS, IND.,
Chairman

The National Education Association reaffirms as a statement of its general policies the platform adopted at the Atlantic City meeting, July, 1932; and, realizing that the training of children cannot be postponed because of the economic crisis, adopts the following specific resolutions concerning the present emergency in education:

School Funds and School Management

Taxation—The solvency of the schools is dependent upon the application of scientific principles of taxation. The state governments should immediately designate tax commissions of experts for the purpose of devising taxation systems that are both adequate and equitable. There must be mitigation of excessive real estate taxation and a sharing of the burden by equitable taxes from other sources. The federal government should take whatever measures may be necessary to allow the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to assist the schools directly.

School expenditures in the light of economic recovery—[1] No school retrenchment is truly an economy measure unless it: [a] preserves the educational rights of childhood and [b] is based on scientific professional principles.

[2] In view of rising price levels, schoolboards should: [a] refrain from

further cutting of school costs, including salaries; [b] return to normal levels of expenditure as soon as possible in cases where excessive reductions have already been made; [c] reestablish educationally valuable services and courses which have been eliminated.

First principles of school management—[1] The management of school affairs must be non-political and professionally directed. [The growing practise of political interference in the appointment of school officials and teachers is unreservedly condemned.]

[2] Public education must be free. [The practise of exacting high-school tuition charges that has crept into some systems is unqualifiedly condemned.]

[3] The duty of the state to educate all its children is fundamental, and the greater part of local education costs should be borne by the state.

The American Child and the American Teacher

The American child's right to unfettered teaching—The ability, preparation, and morale of teachers are matters of greatest public concern, inextricably bound up with the welfare of the children of America. The educational development of our children can be safeguarded only when teachers are adequately trained, both academically and professionally, and are assured adequate pay, protection from unjust discharge, professionally conditioned employment of new teachers, at least nine months of school each year, reasonable limitation of size of classes, and freedom from unnecessary worry and from hampering restrictions.

Removal of special discriminations against teachers—[1] Teachers of equivalent training and experience doing the same kind of work should receive equal pay, regardless of sex. [2] Teachers should not be discriminated against because of marital status.

Kindergarten training for every child—Kindergarten training for every child of kindergarten age is a part of the proper educational equipment of the population. The Research Division of the National Education Association is strongly urged to make a further study of the kindergarten situation thruout the United States.

Instruction in effects of alcohol and narcotics—The National Education Association urges complete and specific instruction in the schools regarding the effects of alcohol and narcotics on the human body and on the social organization; and expresses its disapproval of any false advertising or propaganda on this subject.

Public Relations

Publicity needs of education—The quality and extent of education in any community bears a direct relation to the degree of enlightenment of the public opinion of the community. Often skilful secret manipulation of public opinion by minority interests interferes with the natural development of a favorable attitude toward its schools on the part of the public. It thus becomes civic duty for the teachers and all other workers in the schools to serve the children by informing the public of the purposes and work of the

schools, of the facts in regard to school costs, and of the effects of proposed changes. The following avenues of disseminating information are suggested: addressing meetings of organizations, utilizing the opportunities afforded by the press, and inducing parents and other citizens to visit school classes and exhibits.

Examination of motives of organized opponents of school expenditures—School expenditures, activities, and objectives are being systematically attacked by certain business and commercial interests and by organizations bearing such names as taxpayers' leagues, economy leagues, and citizens' committees. Such interests and organizations undoubtedly have the right to advocate changes in public expenditures and policies. It is, however, equally the right of the public to know the membership of such organizations, the source of the funds used for their campaigns, and the real motives underlying such campaigns. The Research Division of the National Education Association is requested: [1] to ascertain and assemble the facts in regard to these movements against public education, and [2] to disseminate those facts so that teachers, parents, and all other citizens may know what influences and interests are motivating these organizations.

Request for information—The officers of the National Education Association are requested to provide, thru its *Journal* and otherwise, reliable, authentic information for the use of its members concerning publicly owned, publicly controlled, and publicly operated gas, electric light and power plants, especially as to the following items:

[1] Name of municipality; [2] Population; [3] Rates of service; [4] Net earnings to the municipality; [5] A similar showing concerning comparable privately owned and privately operated utility companies.

Cooperation with other organizations working for the welfare of the schools—Lay organizations working to protect the schools from injury should have cooperation and appreciation from all teachers and school authorities. Prominent among many such organizations in the various states are: the Parent-Teacher Associations, the American Association of University Women, the National League of Women Voters, the Business and Professional Women's Clubs, numerous service clubs, the American Federation of Labor, the American Legion, and many newspapers and magazines.

Protest and Tribute

Protest against delay and discrimination in payment of salaries—The National Education Association vigorously protests against the policy of cities and other communities that have unnecessarily failed to pay their teachers and that, in meeting public financial obligations, have discriminated against teachers. The Association looks upon such practises by public officials as unfair and unbusinesslike.

Tribute to Chicago teachers—It is especially fitting that the National Education Association pay tribute to the teachers of Chicago, who, in their long experience of unprecedented financial worries, have shown such loyalty, devo-

tion to duty, and zeal in the service of children that they have won the respect of their fellow-workers thruout the nation. The National Education Association commends them to the city of Chicago and to the nation at large as worthy examples of all teachers who have made special sacrifices for the children of America.

National Council of Education

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION was organized in 1880, growing out of a paper read by Thomas W. Bicknell before the Department of Superintendence. See *Proceedings*, 1880:90-94. The active membership of the Council consists of 60 members chosen by the Council; 60 chosen by the Board of Directors of the Association; and three chosen by each of the Departments of the Association. For constitution and bylaws, see *Proceedings*, 1906:608-11.

The officers of the Council for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, William C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; *Vicepresident*, Lida Lee Tall, Principal, State Normal School, Towson, Md.; *Secretary*, Adelaide S. Baylor, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: Minnie J. Nielson, Valley City, N. D. (term expires 1934); David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Chester, Pa. (term expires 1935); Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colo. (term expires 1936).

The Council meets twice each year, once in February and once in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1880: 90- 94	1893:925	1904:333-377	1915:527-627	1926:281-327
1882: 77- 87	1894:593-678	1905:271-340	1916:195-287	1927:247-292
1884:Pt. III:1-67	1895:430-509	1906:607-623	1917:129-219	1928:221-262
1885:405-551	1896:393-470	1907:329-454	1918:135-149	1929:229-274
1886:259-331	1897:317-583	1908:313-500	1919:675-739	1930:199-245
1887:255-328	1898:489-588	1909:331-435	1920:107-190	1931:275-311
1888:251-321	1899:380-529	1910:307-375	1921:269-368	1932:221-257
1889:345-440	1900:297-364	1911:331-476	1922:349-574	
1890:287-364	1901:349-499	1912:499-605	1923:425-551	
1891:275-378	1902:306-408	1913:355-424	1924:350-428	
1892:745-806	1903:301-376	1914:293-404	1925:266-336	

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION, A DISCUSSION OF THE WORK OF THE JOINT COMMISSION ON THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

JOY ELMER MORGAN, EDITOR, THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

This Commission came into existence at a particularly difficult time—a time beset by uncertainty, confusion, and rapidly changing conditions, and yet a time demanding immediate, vigorous, and farsighted action. That this Commission has met these demands is suggested by the chronology which has been submitted to you here. The Commission is made up of members of the profession of broad experience and acknowledged leadership. They were appointed early in January and immediately began the task of forming an estimate of the situation in the nation and of laying plans for action. An examination of the Commission's work gives important evidence that it went into action at the earliest possible moment and has kept in action steadily ever since; that it has had what is perhaps the most widespread cooperation ever accorded any such committee in this country, including departments of the Association and related organizations; that it has found in the headquarters staff of the Association an instrument which it has been able to use effectively to accomplish an important work that could not have been accomplished had the profession been less well-organized and prepared at this point.

The purposes of the Joint Commission as set forth in its descriptive leaflet are:

- (1) To collect information regarding the effects of the present economic situation on the educational program of the nation and of the states.
- (2) To make this information available to everyone.
- (3) To increase the appreciation of the public for the work of the schools.
- (4) To acquaint the public with the loss to childhood which results from unwise cuts in school services.
- (5) To suggest constructive measures of economy and of educational support.
- (6) To cooperate with individuals and local groups in the solution of pressing educational problems.
- (7) To survey the attitudes of lay agencies toward public education.
- (8) To stimulate every agency which can make a contribution to education in this emergency.
- (9) To coordinate and unify the efforts of agencies already at work so that maximum results may be obtained.
- (10) To rally the friends of education to the support of education.

In keeping with the varied situation which it has had to meet, the Commission has chosen a variety of methods, each suited to a particular need. These methods as set forth in the announcements of the Commission include:

- (1) *The enlistment of a nationwide leadership*, consisting of the official representatives and officers of the organized educational groups thruout the country. This has given the Commission a body of nearly five hundred consultants who are daily

on the firing line in education and who are in a position to act on the information which comes to them and to put into effect wise policies.

(2) *The Commission has conducted a series of regional conferences*, including meetings at Kansas City, Chicago, and Atlanta, thru which it has kept in touch with professional consultants and lay leadership. A review of local school conditions was presented at these conferences by the consultants, including extent of school curtailments, sources of support, effective public relations programs, organization of local discussion groups with the lay public, and plans for further action. More of these conferences are planned for the school year 1933-34.

(3) *The emergency reports of the Commission* describing conditions as they have developed, have been issued at frequent intervals to the educational press and to others in a position to influence public opinion. Six letters have been sent to the consultants containing special information and material prepared by the Divisions of Research and Publications of the Association. The Research Division has recently completed a state-by-state review of the effects that current conditions are having on the schools. The Division of Publications has prepared material for publication in the lay and professional press and in special bulletins issued by the departments of the Association.

(4) *Leaflets* setting forth essential facts about the schools have been prepared for general distribution. The staff of the *Journal of the National Education Association* has been developing a series of home and school leaflets which can be sent into the homes thru the children along with their report cards. One of these leaflets, "Good Schools in Bad Times," will be used in especially large numbers during American Education Week. This plan of home-and-school contact has great possibilities. It can be worked out on a local, state, or national basis, or on a combination of these three.

(5) *Radio addresses* on coast-to-coast programs are taking the case for the schools to the American people. During April and May there were twenty-six of these addresses by leading educators and laymen. Most of them were so arranged over the nationwide networks that they would reach well-established listener-groups which had become accustomed at a particular hour to some special feature, such as the Department of Agriculture Farm and Home Hour. These radio presentations, in addition to those which have been carried on under the direction of Florence Hale, have given the radio audience a generous measure of educational information.

(6) *Speakers* have carried information about the emergency in education to conventions, commencements, and public meetings of many sorts.

(7) *Exhibits* displaying effective methods of meeting the crisis have been prepared for use at conventions and regional conferences.

(8) *Local discussion groups* to consider educational problems and policies are in process of organization.

(9) *Newspapers and magazines* are carrying to their readers the facts assembled by the Commission.

(10) *American Education Week*, November 6-12, is to be used as never before to focus the attention of the public on the needs and opportunities of the schools. The three sponsors of the occasion—the National Education Association, the American Legion, and the United States Office of Education—have developed material around the program and plans of the Joint Commission. The theme for the Week will be *Meeting the Emergency in Education*.

The philosophy and point of view of the Commission have been set forth in the reports and statements made by the chairman and various members of the Commission. It is highly significant that there is essential unanimity among the school forces of America on the fundamental philosophy which lies at issue in this educational crisis. The chairman of the Commission has given expression to it in such phrases as the title of his radio address of April

18, "Peasants or Freemen?" and in the challenge which he issued at the Minneapolis convention:

The teachers stand ready to join with industrial, financial, and political leaders, and with all other groups, in carrying forward any sound program for economic reconstruction. They will oppose with every resource at their command, both as citizens and as teachers, the effort of any selfish group to create a peasant class in the United States. Peasant standards are not necessary in our country either in educating children or in other areas of life. Teachers will stand foursquare with parents and with all intelligent citizens of the nation to fight the imposition of such standards upon the American people.

For a generation two opposing forces have been fast gaining headway in America. One of those forces—the ideal of democratic equality of opportunity—is best exemplified in the development of the common school which each generation has raised to higher levels of excellence and scope. The other of these two forces—the tendency toward a caste system with high concentration of wealth and control—is represented by the great financial czars, the gigantic mechanized industries, and the privately owned utilities of America. Were one to select from some of these powerful groups which have been deliberately predatory, the picture would indeed be dark. But even if one make the selection from the more ethical and best managed of these great aggregates of finance and industry, he must still be impressed with its essentially undemocratic character. Control is centralized. The worker has little say or security. The selfish advantages of secrecy, inside manipulation, and monopoly are so large that men of great ambition forget that industry should be the servant and not the master of life. It is not surprising under conditions like these that the issue between democracy and the caste system should be drawn, and that there should arise in America widespread propaganda to the effect that democracy is a failure. In my judgment the teaching profession should be the first to proclaim and prove the success of democracy. It should point to the large and inescapable fact that under the egis of democratic ideals and aspirations, America has made advances unparalleled in all history before. It should go farther in the analysis to show just why this progress arises, because under the American democratic system, the spiritual and mental as well as the physical energies of the people, have been freed.

I can think of no task more appropriate to this Council than that each of its members should dedicate himself anew to the work of interpreting vigorously and militantly thru every channel at his command, the strength of American democratic ideals, the part which the school plays and must play in achieving these ideals, and the relation of these democratic concepts to our national wellbeing and advance. Such a program of interpretation of the democratic philosophy of education will not be easy, particularly in the face of reduced budgets, of economic collapse, and of the propaganda of special interests who would profit by destroying democratic ideals. Such an interpretation cannot stop with mere generalizations and platitudes. In the end we must come to grips with fundamental applications involving our political

institutions, our distribution of wealth, and the specific methods by which we are to bring democracy into industry or to bring about some sort of democratic control essential to the preservation of our American institutions.

I can think of no one among our American educators who has been more eloquent and sustained in his championship of the democratic ideal in education than the present president of this National Council of Education, William C. Bagley. May it not well be that this Council, as a selected group of scholars in American education, will take as its special contribution to the work of the Emergency Commission this problem of interpreting the American democratic ideal of equality of educational opportunity in such a way that the entire profession and the citizens of the country will have a clear understanding of the issues at stake. Let us never forget that our institutions must be born anew with each generation, that we cannot take them for granted if we desire them to survive. If we desire good homes there must be worthy parents eagerly teaching their children the significance of good homes. If we desire fine schools there must be consecrated teachers leading both children and the public to understand the significance of good schools. If we desire the democratic outlook in government there must be able citizens who will teach and exemplify the deeper meanings of citizenship.

Discussion by Thomas E. Benner, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Mr. Morgan has suggested that the National Council of Education might undertake, as its special contribution to the work of the Emergency Commission, the interpretation of the importance of the democratic ideal of equality of educational opportunity. It is about that suggestion that I wish to center my discussion.

Permit me to say, first, that Mr. Morgan, with whom I have "discussed this discussion," is in agreement with the general point of view which I wish to present. I emphasize this lest the use, or misuse, I shall make of his suggestion seem out of harmony with his proposal.

The vast majority of the people of this country, in my opinion, are no less interested in "the equalization of educational opportunity" than they ever were. The essential difficulty is that they are less certain what constitutes "educational opportunity."

In the past the phrase has always suggested to them an open road to wealth and power. They have believed that as long as the road to these material ends was open to every individual there would, as a corollary, be individual and social progress. Only four years ago they thought they were seeing the demonstration of that belief. Now they are bitter in their disillusionment.

They need to be reminded that this great depression resulted from too much rugged individualism and too little social understanding. This means development of the schools for the better socialization of all as the only means of insuring the advancement of each.

This introductory statement will perhaps make clear my complete agreement with the ends which Mr. Morgan has in mind, at the same time that it makes clear my objection to the slogan which he proposes. To the public it implies too much of the individual and too little of the social function of education in a democracy.

Thinking of the future I cannot escape the belief that the great contribution of a body such as this towards helping work our way out of the educational emergency would consist in revealing the snarls and tangles which, within the pattern of our whole scheme of education, obstruct our efforts to make our schools more effective social agencies.

The teachers in elementary and secondary schools have not been given the breadth of social understanding which would make them ready to participate effectively in making the schools more successful social agencies. This is a direct criticism of the nature of our teacher-training programs in teachers colleges and in colleges of liberal arts.

The faculty members of these colleges are in turn inadequately prepared to participate in the formulation and conduct of a program of truly liberal education in terms of the world of today. To make clear what I have in mind when I say "truly liberal education" let me define it as education which seeks to give an understanding of some of the major problems which have confronted man, of the solutions he has attempted, and of the reasons for their failure or success, and which aids the student to discover the points at which he may hope to contribute to better solutions.

The inadequate preparation of college faculty members for participation in the formulation and conduct of such a program as this is the result of the exclusive preoccupation of the graduate school with increasingly narrow specialization in the interests of compartmentalized research. There is no longer any room for philosophy in the program of the prospective doctor of philosophy.

Specifically, then, my interpretation of Mr. Morgan's proposal would be that, as a long-time program for meeting the education emergency, this organization should study the possibility of another and new type of graduate training for prospective faculty members who plan to teach on those levels in our colleges where the giving of a liberal education is supposed to be our objective. Such a program would aim at the development of breadth as well as specialization; emphasize the social significance of scholarship as well as its technics.

As a more immediate program there must, of course, be developed better and more liberal programs of adult education both for the general public and for teachers in service.

In summary, to restore public confidence in the vital importance of equal educational opportunity, we must solve much more successfully than we have yet been able to do the problem of making the schools effective agencies for social progress, and must emphasize that opportunity for the individual, democratically conceived, is dependent on the social intelligence of the group. The key to this solution will be found in the graduate school.

THE PROPOSED YEARBOOK ON MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

JAMES F. HOSIC, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

It is appropriate to present to the National Council of Education certain facts concerning a forthcoming yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction for the reason that the project may be said to have originated in a previous Council program. At the Minneapolis meeting, Mr. Dondineau, Director of Instruction in Detroit, read a paper that resulted in a lively discussion and suggested some definite action.

Mr. Dondineau's contentions were substantially as follows:

1. The use of single, encyclopedic textbooks in our school courses renders the curriculum static. No substantial progress in changing the curriculum can be made until this condition is changed.
 2. Present social needs demand more adequate presentation of social concepts than our present teaching material provides for.
 3. Theoretical advance of the curriculum has proceeded as far as is likely to be of value until actual classroom practise has caught up. This depends upon (a) teacher preparation, and (b) materials of instruction.
 4. Actual teaching is still carried on mainly by means of books. Hence such questions as what books, how many, and how used are pivotal.
 5. With the possible exception of mathematics no phase of the curriculum can be adequately administered by means of a single book.
 6. At present far better provision is made of equipment than of materials. Expenditures for furniture and fittings is disproportionate; relatively more should be spent for materials of instruction.
 7. Basic texts are essential but library books are just as essential.
 8. Supervision has a great responsibility both as to the supply of proper materials and as to their effective use by teachers.
 9. If teachers are to make the contribution to American social life of which they are capable, they must be granted the same freedom which they are now expected to grant to their pupils.
- To these principles the present speaker would add:
10. While aims and objectives of school work, once they have been cooperatively arrived at and agreed to, should be regarded as a mandatory, subjectmatter and its method of utilization should be regarded as optional.
 11. As much care should be exercised by supervisors in providing for the individual differences of schools and of teachers as they seek to foster in the matter of providing for the differences of pupils.
 12. Our present difficulties in regard to materials of instruction are due largely to the form of school organization employed. The general practitioner in the one-teacher school should be replaced by cooperative groups made up of specialists.

A committee on the yearbook on materials of instruction is in process of formation. The cooperation of various organizations will be invited. Suggestions from any responsible source will be welcome. Since the field to be covered is very large and since other groups are attempting to deal with certain types of materials, this committee will concern itself mainly with books and other printed materials. The date of publication will be February 1935.

THE FAR EAST IN AMERICAN PUBLIC EDUCATION

EDWARD C. CARTER, SECRETARY, AMERICAN COUNCIL OF THE INSTITUTE OF
PACIFIC RELATIONS, NEW YORK, N. Y.

1. American interests in the Pacific area are rapidly approaching in importance those in the Atlantic area. This is true not only of political and trade relations but also of social and cultural contacts.

Not only the American-born children of Oriental immigrants but also a growing number of Americans living in the Far East are maintaining contacts between the civilizations of East and West. In 1932, 27,000 Americans were living in Asia and Australia, and 43,000 people, not including those on cruises, left American ports for the Orient.

We have some 2000 Oriental students in our schools and colleges, many of whom on their return remain in close contact with American institutions.

American investments in China and Japan alone amount to over 650 million dollars; and our trade with Asia and Oceania in 1932 reached a total of 700 million dollars. The purchases of American products by the peoples of this area have enormously increased since the War: in 1913, they bought 7.9 percent of our exports, and in 1932 20.4 percent. Similarly, they now contribute nearly one-third of our imports: 28 percent in 1932, as compared with 17.3 percent in 1913.

Ships across the Pacific now bring to our ports over one half of our material imports—that is, goods essential for the economic life of this country—as compared with about one quarter before the War. Japan, altho a relatively small country, is second only to Canada in supplying the United States with needed goods, and at the same time our third best customer.

Oriental collections in our museums, libraries of and about the Orient, and other cultural contacts with the far shores of the Pacific are rapidly growing. Many of our own arts and crafts, from gardening to interior decoration, have been profoundly influenced by the Far East. American agriculture and pharmacology have been enriched in recent years by the experience of the East.

2. Social Studies in American public schools—including history, geography, world economics, and civics—do not as yet reflect this enlargement of our national interests, except where individual institutions or teachers are expressing their awareness of this need in suggestive experiments.

While evidences of anti-Oriental prejudice are rare in the school textbooks most widely used, there are few evidences of positive appreciation for the character of Oriental peoples and their ways of life. Geographical and ethnic descriptions often are of an uninteresting routine character. Information given about customs, habits, and material resources often is erroneous or out of date.

In world histories the allotment of space to the civilizations of the East is inadequate for an age in which the fortunes of East and West are becoming more intimately bound together. Information about the history of Far Eastern nations often is given exclusively in relation to their contacts with the West, and often with an exaggerated insistence upon foreign contributions toward their prosperity or progress. There is little effort to view Oriental ideas and ways from any but a western point of view.

In the teaching of civics, the countries of the Pacific often are mentioned only as potential sources of immigration; and adverse attitudes toward their inhabitants are created by omitting all references to them except as undesirable immigrants. Opportunities for illustrating the possibilities of international cooperation with examples from American relations with the countries of the Far East are neglected.

In the teaching of world economics, illustrations are as yet almost exclusively taken from the Atlantic world.

3. While it may be open to question whether there is need for the addition of special courses, or parts of courses, devoted to the Pacific area or the Far East, there is unquestionable need for an adequate recognition of this area and its peoples in all courses that aim to acquaint the American child with the world in which he lives, and with the threads that connect his life and its cultural background with the vast populations of the Pacific and their ancient cultures.

Many educators will consider it undesirable to enlarge present programs of social studies—except where suggestions for special, voluntary courses are helpful to give teachers a wider range from which to choose, according to the interests of the community or of a class.

Existing general courses in history, geography, and other social studies, already provide the frame-work that is needed for giving a more balanced presentation of the world we live in and of its historical becoming. An unbalanced treatment—sympathetically dealing with some races and peoples, and mentioning others only in passing as the recipients of American bounty—makes for misunderstandings and adverse attitudes which prevent the formation of accurate judgments as regards the character of different peoples and their contributions to our welfare.

The social studies should give children a sense of their total social heritage; glimpses of its richness should engender the desire to explore it much further than is possible in the limited time that can be given in the classroom. What is wanted, then, is not simply more information, but a more diversified illustration of social facts and processes from the total area of man's experience and achievements, including the greatest depository of both—the Orient.

4. To meet this need, a group composed of teachers and of persons with authoritative knowledge of the history and civilizations of the Pacific, and specifically of the Far East, should cooperate to provide adequate materials for use in the revision of courses and textbooks.

One reason why Occidental history and civilizations have been, and will continue to be, treated much more thoroly in our schools than Oriental history and civilizations is that our own past is deeply rooted in the European past. Another is that it has seemed easier to enter into the mentality of ancient and medieval Europe than into that of other civilizations. But this difficulty has been exaggerated. It simply means that our knowledge of the East is more recent, as yet less accurately documented (tho some authorities believe that the volume of original records is actually greater); and the effort to translate authoritative data into the modern and simple language of our schools, which has made accessible to our children the glorious past of western thought and deed, has yet to be made for the cultures of the Pacific.

There is no dearth of sources from which teachers and Oriental specialists may jointly selected both literary and graphic materials of highest pedagogic value. An experimental first survey of materials already available in English would show the prospects of further exploration. The purpose of such a survey would not be merely to disclose material interesting in itself for which room may or may not be found in the social studies, it would also show ways in which present courses in social studies, with their present objectives, may be enriched by drawing more largely upon the oldest and most influential civilizations of the world. Not only this, but the continued existence in the Far East, and in the Pacific, of relatively primitive agricultural and handcraft civilizations, and of social systems built up on these, provides living examples for a better understanding of our own early backgrounds.

Discussion by Edith P. Parker, Assistant Professor of the Teaching of Geography, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Geography has a distinctive contribution to make to insight into problems of the Far East, and geography teachers should be held responsible for their part in fulfilling the obligation Mr. Carter lays fairly and squarely on educators. One cannot learn of the adjustments which people of the Far East have made to their natural surroundings without gaining, as a result of such understanding, much respect for the peoples involved, and much insight into many of their major problems. Geographic knowledge of the Far East, then, functions vitally in the development of the attitudes for which Mr. Carter justly pleads.

The amount of attention given in geography to any part of the world should be proportionate to the importance of that section in American and world affairs. To determine this importance scientifically, one turns to objective data of types which Mr. Carter has used. He cites enough data of these types to demonstrate clearly the technic involved, and to show the considerable and increasing importance of problems of the Far East in American affairs.

The amount of emphasis given in geography to the Far East is not to be measured wholly in terms of the text space and the class time devoted to that part of the world. A given period may be devoted to ideas of little significance; it may be devoted, instead, to those of great value. A half year's work in the fourth grade on a given theme means much less stress on it than a half year's work on that theme at higher levels, because the background children can bring to it at the lower level is less than that which they can bring at later stages in their development.

Mr. Carter is correct in asserting that uninteresting, routine, inaccurate, out-of-date material is common in so-called geography courses. Such materials have no place, however, in real geography. There is no alibi for administrators and teachers who continue to stress the mere memorization of isolated facts grouped in topical outlines and who fail to lead children to become acquainted in a very human way with what people in a given region do, how they live, and how their activities and attitudes are related to the kind of place in which they dwell.

Much real damage of the type Mr. Carter notes has resulted, in geography, from the treatment of China and Japan in the third or fourth grade. The outstanding geographic problems of the Far East are not simple enough for children at these levels to comprehend. The study of the Far East has no legitimate place in the curriculum in geography at a level lower than that at which children have enough real geographic background to enable them to comprehend the major aspects in the geographic personalities of these regions.

On the other hand, regions in the Far East should have adequate attention at the earliest level at which accurate understanding of the major geographic ideas involved can be gained. The sooner one has a functioning idea, the

greater is the opportunity he has for it to function, and every application of the idea to new situations tends to strengthen one's grasp of the idea itself. The relatively greater significance to Americans of the Far East as compared with that of Latin America is one of the important reasons for the fact that a rapidly increasing number of geographers is recommending (1) the study of the Far East following that of Anglo-America and western Europe and preceding that of Latin America, and (2) the assigning of a minimum of a half year in late intermediate work chiefly to the great powers of Asia. Further insight into the geography of these regions should be given in connection with later courses dealing with the geography of world relations of the United States, the geography of world trade, and political geography.

Major geographic understandings of the type that function in gaining insight into activities and problems of the Far East can be gained only thru a body of concrete experiences so selected and so directed as to center from beginning to end on those understandings. The same fact is true of any major historical understanding relating to the Far East. After major historical and geographic ideas have been developed thru separate treatment, they may both be applied in the solution of a given problem. Unless one distinguishes, however, between so-called fusion in acquisition and fusion in application, the contributions of history and geography to insight into problems of the Far East will be merely potential and will not be effected.

As Mr. Carter suggests, there is, in geography, no need for additional courses in order to give appropriate emphasis to the Far East. There is crying need for the inclusion in all current courses relating to the Far East units which give concise, accurate understandings of a truly geographical type. Only thru distinctive, clear-cut understandings of various types can one gain any well-rounded insight of the type for which Mr. Carter ably pleads.

REPORT OF THE YEAR'S PROGRESS

JOHN S. BRUBACHER, YALE UNIVERSITY, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

In spite of the work of three national educational surveys—finance, teachers, and secondary schools—of the research of private foundations, and of the publication of *Recent Social Trends*, the fact of absorbing national educational interest is the present dislocation of economic life and its significance for the schools of the country.

Since 1928 the nation's income has been nearly halved. Between 1913 and 1930 the percent of national income allocated to taxes has more than doubled. These facts have demanded economy along all lines of public expenditure.

While complete and detailed figures indicating the results of economy programs in public schools are not yet available, the following have been compiled for 41 cities of 100,000 population or more: (1) Budgets reduced in the item of current expense, 5 percent; 12 percent, if the New England and North Atlantic states be not reckoned. (2) Capital outlay for 1933 has been reduced 38 percent; 39 percent, if the Northeastern group of states

be omitted. (3) Teachers' salaries have been cut 5 percent; 15 percent, not including the more prosperous area already mentioned. For 1075 cities where size was not a factor, the average reduction was only 7.5 percent. (4) School enrolments are up about 1.5 percent while the number of teachers has been curtailed by a little above 2 percent.

Data gathered from wider sources indicate: (1) an average reduction of the school term in many communities of 10-20 days, the actual closing of over one thousand schools in the South Central states; (2) curriculum offerings too are greatly curtailed, especially kindergartens, night schools, health service, and music; (3) larger classes are the rule almost everywhere; (4) there is a serious oversupply of teachers.

Various pressure groups have been very active in the matter of school expenditures such as the National Economy League, United States Chamber of Commerce, American Federation of Labor, the National Education Association, and numerous local committees. Very significant has been the growth of extra-legal groups of laymen, frequently bankers, who thru the control of credit have dictated school fiscal policies.

Education has not suffered so severely in Europe as in the United States. While England has trimmed her financial outlay, France and Italy have enlarged theirs, France voting to make all years of secondary education free. Spain has tried to laicize its republican system of schools while Russian enrolments have grown to where it is the largest national system of schools in the world. Russia has also made an important move to raise the quality of its instruction. In Germany the issue of *Lern-und-lehrfreiheit* has been pushed to the fore by the Nazis.

Various hypotheses have been suggested to meet the educational crisis in this country. Some have been enacted into law. The chief direction of these proposals has been toward revision of systems of taxation and larger administrative units. Social and economic planning has been especially discussed. Some think that the school should take the initiative in building for a new social order.

The "Evaluation of American Education" has been set as the theme of the 1933 summer meeting of the National Education Association. What value shall be attached to the preceding facts? Since hindsight plays so large a part in foresight, the historical viewpoint may be mounted to scan three possible outcomes of our times.

1. Perhaps this economic cycle is like preceding ones. If so, this "strange interlude" will soon pass and education will not only be restored to its former riches but will be promoted to greater ones. Comparison with the depression of 1873 bears this out. That recession came about ten years after a major war, as did this one. During its spread of five years reductions occurred in all public expenditures; but not so great as in the national income; less for schools than for other public services; and in the latter before the schools. Teachers' salaries kept up well in the first two years but were lowest in the fourth and fifth years. In 1878 conditions improved and by 1880 losses had

not only been regained but advances had been made beyond the level of 1873. The past four years on a point for point comparison reveal highly similar conditions. Will the fifth and succeeding ones repeat the cycle?

There are many who answer in the negative who think that this depression is different because, while other depressions have been limited in scope, this is worldwide; we no longer have a frontier to absorb our economic woes; the capitalistic industrial system is seriously questioned; and government is abandoning *laissez-faire* for greater social cooperation.

2. Some contend that this new social order demands planning. If so, they claim it is the duty of the schools to help create the new social order. This claim seems sound enough. But, should the school select the form of the new social order? Or, however selected, should the school impose this on the children? Perhaps from now on the worldwide spread of the present depression in comparison with the schools will select the social order, but up to date there is no important record of such a case. The school has always been a powerful agency to promote an existing order but never to select it. It frequently has promoted one by methods of indoctrination. But our best political tradition in the past has been in the evolution of freedom of speech and the press. The educational counterpart is academic freedom with no less hard won or distinguished history. If a new social order is in the making, then, the schools function should be neither to select nor to impose it but to preserve a fearlessly critical attitude toward it.

3. Both preceding evaluations of the year's events concede the latter are in a state of flux. The first conceives the change as cyclical, that there will be little or no novelty over preceding change. The second implies rather profound change. A third hypothesis might also confess underlying change but at the same time doubt and uncertainty as to its implications for education. It was a quarter of a century and more after the Revolutionary War before the consequences of the great political and economic changes engendered by that struggle became clear for American schools. If changes as fundamental are afoot at the present, it may well be some time before we know in which direction to point the schools. If uncertain development of the social fabric does not necessitate this, our economic exhaustion may. The educational revival which has followed each of our preceding major wars has been delayed at least a quarter of a century till the country has caught its economic breath. But even if at an early date the trend of events should become clear and economic stability become rehabilitated, it must be remembered that the schools will not be the only early birds looking for the first worms of prosperity. Other social enterprises such as unemployment insurance will be competitors with such educational projects as universal secondary education.

Possibly education itself is rounding out an epoch. The present educational fabric has been in the weaving since around 1885. The past fifty years represent patterns compounded from the warp of the educational philosophy of Dewey on the one hand and the woof of the experimental procedures of Thorndike on the other. While evolving from the Herbartian movement of the nineties they represent a distinct advance beyond the nineteenth century.

The past two decades have produced no contributions so original. Rather has the past score of years set itself the task of criticizing and refining in detail the implications of the main hypotheses of these leaders. This may continue the case during the transition period.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON A NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

WILLIAM A. EVANS, ROTHENBERG JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, CINCINNATI, OHIO,
Chairman

The first presentation of the plan for an Institute on Education was made at the meeting of the National Council of Education held in Washington, D. C., February 1932. The president of the Council was instructed to appoint a committee whose duty was to consider two things: 1. A study of the proposed plan and a consideration of its feasibility as a project of the Council. 2. If the committee approved the plan a proposal for the organization of such an Institute, with recommendations as to organization, should be presented to the Council.

Dr. Bagley called a meeting of the committee at the summer session of the N. E. A. at Atlantic City. The members of the committee present at this meeting were: W. C. Bagley, L. A. Alderman, Lucille Allard, J. M. Gwinn, E. E. Oberholtzer, F. J. Kelly, William A. Evans, Adelaide Baylor (ex-officio).

The first decision reached by the committee was that the plan was a feasible project for the Council. In answer to the second problem set for its consideration the committee approved the plan, made certain additions providing for temporary organization and redrafted the wording of the outline of the plan. In order that no time might be lost the committee determined to present the outline to the Council by mail and seek an expression of opinion from them. The plan as submitted to the members of the Council follows:

REVISED PLAN—NATIONAL EDUCATION INSTITUTE

PURPOSE AND PLAN

The purpose of this Institute shall be to promote understanding of the basic purpose and procedure of education in advancing the socio-economic wellbeing of a people. It shall be conducted principally by group discussion and publication.

CONTROL

This Institute will be sponsored by the N. E. A. under the direction of the National Council of Education thru a Board of Control appointed by it.

TIME

The time of holding the Institute shall be fixed by the Board of Control, and shall be during the summer period.

PLACE

The center for holding the Institute probably will be some college or other place with proper housing, recreation, and equipment facilities. The location for each annual meeting will be determined by the Board of Control.

PERSONNEL

The personnel shall consist of:

- A. Leaders of thought and action both national and international. Some of these would be full time, others part time.
 - B. Other members who can profitably participate admitted on application. Opportunity extended to cities or institutions to send delegates.
- Number enrolled to be limited to such size as to permit the group discussion procedure to dominate.

FINANCE

A plan of finance will be set up in detail by the Board of Control. Expenses will be borne wholly or in part by the participating group without financial obligation on the part of the N. E. A.

PUBLICATIONS

There will be published a record of proceedings to be disposed of (1) gratis to members of the Institute, (2) by sale.

PROVISION FOR TEMPORARY ORGANIZATION

In order to provide for preliminary organization of the Institute, the committee recommends the appointment by the president of the Council, of a temporary Board of Control of which the president of the Council shall be chairman. This Board of Control shall act in the interim before the next meeting of the Council.

The Council was invited to express its opinion on two questions: 1. Is the plan feasible? 2. Is the plan satisfactory?

The result of the poll in which 109 replies were received follows:

Question 1—Is the plan feasible? Ninety-nine vote unqualifiedly for feasibility. One votes for feasibility provided it does not duplicate existing programs, but leads out. Four vote doubtful as to feasibility. Five vote "No" as to feasibility.

Question 2—Is the plan satisfactory? Sixty-seven of the 109 stated that the plan was satisfactory and made no further comments, except of commendation. Of the remaining 42, all but nine voted that the plan was satisfactory, but raised questions concerning it. These questions relate especially to problems of finance, plans to maintain a democratic organization, selection of leaders, winter vs. summer time for holding it, duplication of work already being done in similar fields, confining the program to social-economic fields, and the like.

Dr. Bagley called a meeting of the committee at New York on December 17, 1932 to review the result of the poll and to consider the replies received which raised questions pertinent to the initiation of the plan. Perhaps a review of this meeting will best indicate the consideration discussed and progress made.

Dr. Bagley said that altho the function of this committee has been to consider and plan for the proposed National Institute of Education, there was a more vital and immediate need in the present crisis. He thought that this committee should send a message to the White House Educational Conference, in Washington, D. C., on January 4th 1933, pledging the Council

to cooperate in any constructive measures that the Conference may propose toward the solution of the very serious educational problems involved in the present economic crisis.

Dr. Kelly suggested that the proposed Institute idea seemed to be practically impossible now on account of the depression.

The chief objection was in regard to financing the Institute. Other objections were fear of duplication with other summer schools, fear of undesirable or cheap publicity, fear of limiting subjects discussed by those furnishing financial support. Dr. Kelly suggested that there should be no conflict between the Institute and regular summer schools since the aim of each was different. Also in regular summer schools some members of the regular staff are competent to deal with socio-economic questions, but others are not.

Mr. Evans said that he had already approached the Chamber of Commerce of Cincinnati and Dr. Pechstein, Dean of the School of Education, University of Cincinnati, as to the possibility of getting financial support. Mr. Oberholtzer had suggested approaching Rice Institute and also the Chamber of Commerce in Houston, Texas.

Mr. Evans felt that if the Institute were to be held in the University of Cincinnati, in June, financial support could be secured. He had delayed any official request, however, until after the committee meeting. After much discussion the committee decided to attempt to hold the Institute for one week in June, if financial aid could be secured. This first meeting would be for the purpose of discussing what can be done.

Dr. Kelly thought that thru this first Institute, or week's conference, one might discover what part education should play in the socio-economic affairs of the world.

Several suggestions as to how the conference was to be conducted were presented by members of the committee. Dr. Bagley thought that outstanding speakers might accept the invitation of the group if expenses were paid and that \$2500 or \$3000 might be sufficient to underwrite the conference. Dr. Kelly thought the plans for the permanent Institute should be postponed and that the conference idea should be carried out instead.

The question was raised as to what should be the name of the institute or conference. Dr. Bagley suggested "An Institute of Education to Consider the Relation of Education to Social and Economic Problems." The name was accepted.

Dr. Bagley proposed that the next step in the plans was to consider the personnel of the group. First, those who might be lecturers; and second, those who might be invited to attend.

The names of those who might lecture or lead discussions were to be considered first. These men were to be from the fields of politics, sociology, economics, or the press. After some discussion it was proposed that evening meetings, open to the public, be held and that a fee be charged to help pay the expenses of the conference. Such speakers as Alfred E. Smith, Stuart Chase, Nicholas Murray Butler, La Follette, Wickersham, John Finley,

Lady Astor, Grace Abbott, were to be invited to speak at the large public gatherings, and other names were suggested as possibilities for leaders of the morning and afternoon discussion groups.

It was proposed that President-elect Roosevelt be invited to the conference and that Dr. Moley, his adviser, be invited also. Some felt that there was great value in having the President attend; others felt that his presence might give the conference a political publicity that would not be wholly desirable.

Dr. Kelly thought that the consideration of *who* was to attend the conference might influence the speakers in their answers to the invitation. The following experts were suggested: Franklin D. Roosevelt, Raymond Moley, Alfred E. Smith, Stuart Chase, Frank D. Graham, Howard Scott, Sir James Arthur Salter, William F. Ogburn, Charles A. Beard, Wesley Mitchell, Harold Moulton, Robert M. LaFollette, Herbert B. Swope, Edward A. Filene, Mathew Woll, Lewis E. Lawes, G. W. Wickersham, Mr. and Mrs. Lynd, D. C. Fisher, Charles E. Merriam, Herbert H. Lehman, Leon C. Marshall, Murray Seasongood, Irving Fisher, Willford Isbell King, Edwin Francis Gay, Howard Odum.

Dr. Bagley suggested that there be morning and afternoon conferences for five days and on Saturday summaries be given and conclusions on proposals be made as a result of the week's thinking. The plan of the morning and afternoon conferences should be somewhat as follows:

For example, Stuart Chase would prepare a short paper which could be handed out to the group. He would present this thesis and then there would be questions from the floor.

There was a suggestion made that a fee of \$10 be charged to help defray the expenses of the conference. Dr. Bagley said that he preferred to send out invitations to leaders and have invited guests admitted to all meetings free. The evening lectures would be open to the public and a fee charged. The committee felt that not more than a hundred invitations should be issued—some educators and some in the socio-economic field.

Dr. Bagley suggested that three days be filled with discussions of social and economic problems, and the meetings of the other two days be led by educators showing the relation of education to social and economic problems. Names suggested as leaders for educational groups were, Bode, Dewey, Counts, Judd, Overstreet.

It was decided to leave the details of the June Conference to Mr. Evans and Dean Pechstein, the whole plan to be submitted to the February meeting of the Council at Minneapolis.

With the instructions as given, Mr. Evans, accompanied by Dean Pechstein, conferred with President Walters of the University of Cincinnati. The result of the conference was a statement from President Walters that the University might be willing to act as host for the first institute.

The brevity of the time in which to do all the things necessary to launch an undertaking of this magnitude precluded the June date. There seems to be no reason for declining the proposition of the University of Cincinnati

for one year hence. The need for some pronounced leadership on the part of the National Council was never more desirable. Because no active measures were in progress, emphasizing this leadership, the honor of suggesting, or actively participating in the President's conference in January was lost to the N. E. A. This same need is presented in the petition, sponsored by educators, seeking that President-elect Roosevelt appoint a permanent committee, or congress, to consider the stabilization of those principles in education and social life which determine the permanence of our civilization. It seems like a challenge to the National Council of Education to undertake a task worthy of its name. If this is to shape itself in the "Institute of Education to Consider the Relation of Education to Social and Economic Problems" certain definite steps must be taken.

1. The Council must commit itself to the problem.
2. The leadership must be announced.
3. The purpose must be definitely stated.
4. The N. E. A. must assume, in part at least, the underwriting of the expense. Is the N. E. A. too poor to undertake the handling of this problem? The Ohio Education Association spent \$1500 to conduct a survey looking to state support of education. Certainly the N. E. A. cannot be niggardly in expenditure concerning a problem touching the welfare of the children, the standing of the teaching profession, and the socio-economic problems involving all of us.

The poll really is unanimous on the matter of feasibility and satisfaction. The objections are the timorous ones of expense, and even these are exceedingly few. If this proposition as submitted in the redrafted form, possesses the merit indicated by the poll; by the statement of Dr. Bagley that "it is the best thing the Council has ever done"; by the approval of the committee which considered it for five continuous hours at Atlantic City, it surely offers a medium thru which the Council can serve education in these perilous times.

THE CURRICULUM REVISION MOVEMENT IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

CHARLES H. JUDD, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

1. The fundamental causes which resulted in the movement to revise the curriculum are lack of adaptation of traditional curriculums to the requirements of modern life and the great spread of pupil interests which resulted from the expansion of the school population.
2. The effort to base the curriculum on past or present habits of life or on specific objectives derived from the study of presentday conditions is doomed to failure.
3. Scientific studies are useful in evaluating experiments with curriculum materials and in suggesting directions in which reforms should be undertaken, but no real contribution to curriculum revision is possible without an exhibition of invention which is, strictly speaking, not scientific.

4. The curriculum will remain static so long as American schools are dependent to the extent which they now are on highly condensed textbooks that aim to cover in a single volume all the materials on a given subject.

Discussion by H. B. Bruner, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

While most of us, I think, would agree that lack of adaptation of traditional curriculums to requirements of modern life is one of the fundamental causes resulting in the movement to revise the curriculum, we must not forget that American education has been growing for decades as evidenced by the addition of home economics, manual training, extracurriculum activities, and the like, and by the dropping out in recent years of languages. If the thesis means by "the movement to revise the curriculum" the recent movement that is, within the last decade, we must assume at the very beginning that there has been widespread activity. Fewer than 1500 courses were published prior to 1923, while over 3500 have been received in our laboratory since that time. While I am tempted to answer the thesis stated here immediately in the affirmative, I call to mind a few other possible reasons, namely: (1) the readiness of American education to change, (2) the number of pupil failures, and (3) the inherent importance of the problem when considered in comparison with administration and supervision.

Even tho I should agree with the thesis, I cannot refrain from remarking that there has been a great deal of churning around in our revisions, and while the feeling that traditional curriculums were not adapted to the requirements of modern life may have caused the revision we have not attained our goals in spite of tremendous activity.

Dr. Judd states that the effort to base the curriculum on past or present habits of life or on specific objectives derived from the study of presentday conditions is doomed to failure. If we insert the word "entirely" one might answer this statement as more true than false. If, on the other hand, we ignore completely the study of presentday conditions and habits of life our efforts would be equally doomed to failure. It seems to me that an analysis of presentday conditions is the starting point for all future efforts. We need this analysis for the purpose of determining where we are and what we have in order to know what shortages need to be eliminated to understand more fully the best beginning procedures in order to obtain improvement. We must, however, also envisage the values proposed by frontier thinkers. This, of course, is implied when we set up criteria for determining which of the elements of our present civilization are deemed to be undesirable. While, in my judgment, we must look to the frontier thinkers for directions in which we should move, it would be extremely unwise if we did not begin to build our plans for improvement upon promising elements and conditions of the present time.

The third thesis, it seems to me, attempts to center our thinking on the most appropriate place for the scientist and the philosopher. I hope we are

entering a period where we shall not have to decide on a basis of scientist *or* philosopher but that our scientists will become more philosophical and our philosophers more scientific. It seems to me that the great need at the present stage of our curriculum thinking is, first, for fundamental consideration of the requirements of American life; second, the setting up, in accordance with scientific principles, of activities and materials which will seem to contribute to the satisfying of such requirements; and third, checking and evaluating the results of these activities and materials in order that they may be used in an optimum fashion. While science has some contributions to make in the first step in analyzing present conditions, the chief need is for fundamental thinking into the question of what ought to be and what the most promising possibilities for attaining the goals are. Here, of course, the thinking should be based on all the pertinent data science can supply.

In the second step science can play a large part especially in pointing out the necessity of making materials and activities conform to the known laws of learning.

In the third step, that of evaluating results, science plays a very important role in determining experimental set-ups and securing results but even here much remains to be developed by science in the way of testing results that appear in the form of attitudes and ideals.

Dr. Judd's last statement is in large measure true, since a proper treatment of the problems of modern life demand a consideration of a spread of materials which cannot be included in the highly condensed textbooks of today. As I understand it, the very nature of proper learning demands that pupils be trained to recognize important problems, to select pertinent materials bearing upon a solution of these problems, to organize these materials and to interpret results. This procedure would be strengthened if many sources in addition to textbooks were available. The construction and installation of the type of course of study that calls for more than a single textbook is usually partially blocked by the following factors: (a) lack of training on the part of teachers; (b) the additional financial burdens imposed in the purchase of a much wider range and larger quantity of materials; (c) the determined and money-backed opposition of commercial vested interests. Viewed from one angle the strongly intrenched and politically involved textbook business is the most immediate and most powerful influence militating against the proper revision of curriculums today. On the other hand, we have within the last decade witnessed the tremendous expansion in both the number and the size of the textbooks as well as a decided improvement in quality. All the blame, therefore, cannot be placed at the doors of the textbook companies. Some of it will have to be shouldered by the teacher-training institutions and the writers of professional and children's materials. I am of the opinion that many textbook companies have already seen the writing on the wall and are not only willing but anxious to publish a variety of materials which will treat more adequately the problems of modern life.

**Discussion by Frank L. Clapp, University of Wisconsin,
Madison, Wis.**

The failure to make advancement thru educational research in the field of curriculum construction is due to the fact that in the United States we have no definite concrete political or social philosophy which we dare teach in the schools.

We believe in democracy in the abstract but when it comes to the machinery of government with which we have tried to realize our ideals of democracy, we are not so sure of our beliefs. We believe in political equality in the abstract, but when it comes to advocating the specific forms in which our ideas of political and social equality are expressed we are not so positive.

The same general statements may be made concerning our economic system. Whether we should teach pupils simply to be intelligent and permit them to solve the various political and social problems for themselves, or whether we should attempt to reach some solution for these problems and advocate these solutions to our students is a question which we have not answered. A definite political, social, and economic philosophy expressed in concrete social institutions and procedures would make it possible to put the emphasis in curriculum construction upon the selection of subjectmatter from the standpoint of function rather than from the standpoint of relationship to practical life.

**Discussion by Arthur Dondineau, Supervising Director of
Instruction, Detroit, Mich.**

The traditional use of the single and highly condensed textbook which aims to cover in a single volume all the materials on a given subject and the infallibility of the printed page in the minds of the great mass of teachers present real obstacles in the way of carrying thru a social curriculum aiming to satisfy the requirements of presentday life.

Any program of education must take into consideration the present status of our social and economic order. Those who are guided by such a program must be aggressive in their efforts to provide the children with the opportunity of developing, on appropriate levels, the basic social concepts essential to an understanding of our present social institutions and the intricate problems arising out of the confusion of the present decade.

The carrying out of the curriculum depends on the training, interest, enthusiasm, intelligence, skill, and efforts of all these teachers. It also depends to a much greater degree than we have recognized or admitted on the books, library, museum, and instructional materials used as the medium of instruction. Too little consideration is now given to the means of teaching and to the many classroom aids used as the medium of instruction. We may assume in our discussion groups, in our writings, and in our courses of study that the teacher is teaching children and not subjects, children rather than books. But in the classrooms everywhere instruction is carried on thru the medium of books; in most subjects, by means of a book. We may talk some-

thing else, but the fact remains that books are the chief medium of instruction with the superior teachers as well as the mediocre ones. Now the way to get away from a single book is to use two books, better still three books, or ten books, or a library of books.

A rich collection of books is just as essential in the classroom as are the maps or the globes or the furniture or ventilation or heat. I am convinced that the aims of the present well-developed curriculum can never be achieved until we provide our children with books rich in experience and written on their level of understanding. *The text is basic.* I think it will remain so. But it must be paralleled and supplemented by books less concentrated and more illustrated with the appeal that is found in books rich in incident and in experience.

There never was time when the American teachers were better prepared or were more alert and anxious to make their efforts count in attaining the purposes for which the schools exist. As I see it, it is imperative that the leaders of the curriculum group now concern themselves with bringing into every classroom materials of instruction appropriate in content, rich in experience, and social in outlook. We must also focus our attention on the task of building up the confidence of the teacher in his own ability to use the less standardized materials. To this end we must allow the teacher more freedom in the selection of learning activities and the content of his own teaching than is at present permitted. Confidence in one's ability is essential to professional growth and success. Anyone who observes a large number of teachers at work soon comes to the conclusion that there is a very high correlation between teaching success and that confidence which the teacher has in his own ability.

Our teaching profession must recognize its place in the social, economic, and political life of the nation. Not until the teachers have developed this confidence in their ability to achieve the social ideals which they know to be right, can we hope to prevent the recurrence of such a period of social demoralization that we are passing thru at the present time. The best teachers and the most useful teachers are neither docile nor subservient. They are found expressing themselves frankly and freely on matters professional and public. The public appreciates public servants with initiative, frankness, and independence.

This is a thesis in itself, which I must leave undeveloped. Because of its importance to the curriculum, however, I am unwilling to have it dissociated with this particular discussion.

We have a new teaching profession in this country of breaking away from the traditional practises in the use of textbooks as they have broken away from many of the other traditional methods of teaching, if we will but supply the means and grant the same freedom to teachers in matters of instruction that we have done to insist that the teacher grant to the children in their learning activities.

FUNCTIONS OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION

JESSE H. NEWLON, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION AND DIRECTOR OF LINCOLN SCHOOL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

(1) Educational associations should strive to improve the professional competency of their members in order that they may better serve society.

(2) Since education is a process essential both to the preservation and improvement of a culture, educational associations should formulate their views with reference to social, economic, political processes and problems, and advise the public as to the kind of education that will most effectively meet the needs of society according to these formulated views.

(3) Educational associations should advise the public: (a) with regard to the kind, the quality, and the various forms of organized education that will best serve the needs of society; (b) with regard to the number and types of educational agencies to be created and maintained, the best forms of control, organization, and support of these agencies, and with reference to the number and the professional training of the personnel required; (c) with regard to the educative effects of social institutions and social practises.

(4) Educational associations should serve as agencies whereby the teachers may effectively discharge their responsibility for participation in the formulation of broad social policies.

(5) In the United States an effectively coordinated system of education can be accomplished only thru the cooperation of professional societies representing all departments of the system.

(6) Under our economic and social system educational associations may legitimately strive to advance and protect the interests of their members.

(7) The field of education is so extensive, so varied in character, and so highly specialized as to require many types of professional organizations.

(8) Professional associations in education should in the management of their own affairs exemplify the highest professional and social ideals. They should summon their ablest minds to leadership.

(9) Since educational associations perform an essential social function, it follows that all workers in education should take an active interest in those general associations upon which falls the heaviest responsibility for advising the public on educational problems.

(10) The status of teachers as employees of the state intrusted with a most important social function requires that they advise the public fearlessly with reference to education conceived in the broadest sense.

(11) The National Education Association should create a commission: (a) to reformulate the social objectives of educational associations; (b) to propose a plan for the more effective integration of the National Education Association with state associations and other general associations; and (c) to formulate a program of action in the period of reconstruction that will follow the depression.

Discussion by Florence Curtis Hanson, Secretary, American Federation of Teachers, Chicago, Ill.

In his introduction to the theses, Dr. Newlon has written several sentences which I wish to use as the basis for my remarks. Quoting from Dr. Newlon: "Organization of workers in various occupational fields is a common and inevitable social phenomenon in a complex society. These organizations serve certain broad social purposes. Many seek to improve the professional competence of their members. They seek to advance and protect the interests of their members, however these interests may be conceived."

Specifically, I conceive of the functions of educational associations to be grouped into three main classes, not according to their importance, for I believe each to be fundamental:

1. To advance and protect the interests of their members.
2. To improve the professional competence of their members.
3. To serve certain broad social purposes.

These three functions may be exercised in various ways. Educators may form organizations of various comparatively narrow groups for certain purposes. They may organize into groups that include all workers in the educational field to accomplish other purposes. And it will be necessary for them to join with persons wholly outside the educational field, considered in its narrower sense, to accomplish others.

Dr. Newlon states in his second thesis that since education is a process essential both to the preservation and to the improvement of a culture, educational associations should formulate their views with reference to social, economic, political processes and problems, and advise the public as to the kind of education that will most effectively meet the needs of society according to these formulated views. Dr. Newlon says further that educational competence means understanding, not only of technics, but of the social character and implication of education. How is the teacher to become acquainted with great social changes if he does not associate personally, or thru organizations with those outside of his own narrow group? Educational associations have no business advising society what to do unless by experiences and contacts with other groups they know what to do. Quoting, "The teacher is one of the most highly productive of workers and the best interests of the schools and of the people demand an intimate contact and an effective co-operation between the teachers and the other workers of the community upon whom the future of democracy must depend."

Dr. Newlon states in his tenth thesis that it is time for the tradition that the teacher must be neutral in political matters to be smashed. That time was a long time ago. He states that teachers and schools have in general only reflected the dominant opinion of the country on crucial issues. He cites the action of the largest educational organization in its attitude toward the World War, beginning at pacifism, following with an ignoring of the issue just before American participation and fervent support after participation. He criticizes the same organization for no denunciation of public betrayal of

trust, or of the widespread abject poverty which existed in the wealthiest country in the world even before the depression. I wish to call attention to the fact that the American Federation of Teachers maintained a consistent pacifistic attitude toward the war before, during, and after that great world blunder. Also that the same organization has since its inception consistently denounced the betrayal of public trusts in both high and low places and has condemned repeatedly and without rest the maldistribution of the national income which makes the education we are trying to give the children so ineffective. It created quite a storm of criticism both by public and teachers for a strong statement on banking and bankers and calling attention to a "bankers' conspiracy."

I am especially pleased that Dr. Newlon has brought up the point of the tradition that "since the constituency of the school represents all shades of political, social, economic beliefs, both the school and the teacher must remain neutral with regard to controversial social problems." We have been working for seventeen years to overcome that tradition. It was fifteen years ago, or thereabouts, that Professor Harry A. Overstreet, then and now a member of the American Federation of Teachers, had this to say on that subject: "If one stands for the public one stands inevitably for the ideas and activities of only a portion of the public and of what portion? Surely of that portion which has most deeply at heart the fundamental public good."

Discussion by S. A. Courtis, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

To those interested in educational philosophy the reactions of our whole nation to the depression, citizens as well as teachers, is most interesting and suggestive. We are all being shocked or driven into an awareness of social relationships of which hitherto, for all practical purposes, we may be said to have been totally unconscious. The theses we are discussing today present a clear illustration of this fact. Each of us in his own little corner has gone about his own individual work in his own individual way. Suddenly we find that our work concerns others so vitally they are attempting to meddle with it and to control it in most obnoxious ways. Our first reaction is one of protest. Nor are we willing to protest individually. The forces attempting control are mighty; we feel corresponding need for professional solidarity. A protest backed by a million teachers seems more meaningful. While I have no authority to speak for them, I am sure every member of the National Society of College Teachers also feels the need for action and will rejoice that something is being done to meet the need. My opinion is that, in general, the theses Dr. Newlon has presented will receive the support of college teachers everywhere.

We were invited to suggest ways in which the theses might be improved. I have three criticisms to offer.

1. *Point of View*—It seems to me that the wording of theses might well be changed to express a more cooperative attitude. We talk cooperation, we exalt the importance of cooperation, but few of us ever stop to think what

cooperation really means. The conventional connotation is either "for you to help me achieve my purpose," or "for me to help you achieve your purpose," whereas, the real definition of cooperation is "all of us working together to achieve our purpose."

In the present situation, and in these theses, we are talking of "social control." Who is to exert that control; teachers over education, and bankers over banking? Rugged individualism says yes, but if I interpret correctly both the intent of these theses and the action of the groups to whose efforts to control education we object, the real answer is no. Has not a banker who has had a fortune of \$30,000,000 swept away and who sees a teacher raising strenuous objections to a cut of twenty percent in salary, a right to feel the teacher is narrow-minded and unreasonable? President Roosevelt plans on a \$500,000,000 reduction in the national budget; why should any school or university react adversely to a proportionate cut in its budget? It seems to me the whole tenor of our protests is wrong. We do not produce the money available for civic purposes and are in no position to advise how much shall be spent on our schools. I suggest that our memorials ought to say, "We realize our country has come upon troublesome times; we are glad to take our share of any reductions that are necessary. Tell us how much money is available and let us plan the spending of the money in the most effective ways." As I read the theses, I do not find an expression of such a cooperative spirit.

2. *Social Control*—"But," you will protest, "that is not enough. Education will not be treated fairly. The professional must have a say, not only in how money allotted to education is to be spent but in determining how much shall be allotted. Further, we have been brought into our present difficulties by unwise actions on the part of bankers and business men. We want to make sure this does not happen again. We believe we should have a say in all future planning." I wonder if we realize, when we make such statements that bankers and business men feel just the same way about education. They blame us for present conditions and intend to see that we behave differently in the future.

The truth of the matter is we have all been equally foolish and must all revise our ways. Life is not only individualistic but social and interdependent as well. In the past our country has emphasized the individualistic phases of life—freedom, equality, justice. We are now learning that freedom which ignores social consequences is license; equality that ignores social relationships is inequality; justice which considers the individual only is injustice. Why would it not be better if our theses were so worded as to give expression to the ideal of social unity instead of to the idea of group antagonism? We should ask, it seems to me, for a national planning committee to consider the good of the nation as a whole—a committee that shall represent every interest, teachers, bankers, business men, and all the rest. The committee should plan in terms of the common interests; all plan for banking, all plan for education. Can we justly object to control of education in one paragraph and demand control of national affairs in the next? Why should

not one of our present contributions be emphasis upon the need for the addition of the ideal of social unity to the list of distinctive American ideals?

3. *Social Direction*—This brings me to the last of my criticisms. It is easy to talk of cooperative planning and of social control, but at present there is one fatal defect in all such discussions. What is the common good? In what direction is our nation to move? How shall decision in such matters be made and by whom? American idealism is totally individualistic. Social planning is impossible in such a nation. The bankers desire to reach one goal, the farmers another, the teachers a third. Before there can be anything but acrimonious, antagonistic, sterile debate, and compromise which achieves only the minimum good, there must be agreement as to the common goal to which the goal of each group shall be contributory. Consider the paralysis which has overtaken our national individualistic Congress. In education these days we are giving our students some vision of goals which supply social direction. My suggestion is that we utilize the present opportunity more to make a distinctive professional contribution to national progress by emphasizing the need for national attention to the problem of determining social direction than to airing our own narrow viewpoints, aims, and irritations.

Discussion by J. Herbert Kelley, Executive Secretary, Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg, Pa.

I am in full accord with the theses submitted by Jesse H. Newlon but would like to suggest a few additional functions of educational associations, such as, teacher placement, group insurance, credit unions, and welfare work—both relief in their own homes for former teachers in financial distress, and the operation of teachers homes for retired teachers who find themselves alone in the world and for convalescent teachers in active service. These are major and worthy projects now being carried on by some of our state education associations.

In Pennsylvania, we have accepted the challenge to interpret our public-school program to the laymen and have recently thru our committee on public relations set up an organization that is now functioning in each of our sixty-seven counties. This organization consists of two groups: a professional group with legislative, speakers, and publicity chairmen; and a group of laymen, Friends of Education, with three similar chairmen. By issuing a weekly bulletin we keep in close touch with these chairmen and supply them with plenty of ammunition for their work. The circulation of this bulletin has increased from 10,000 to 40,000 copies in twelve weeks. To carry on this work our Executive Council recently appropriated \$10,000.

As further evidence of the interest of our association in social and political affairs may I cite a resolution adopted by our House of Delegates, a body of 600 representing our membership of over 60,000, favoring the city manager plan of government with the proportional representation method of electing public officials.

Dr. Newlon's suggestion for a closer articulation between state and national associations is most timely. With a membership in the N. E. A. of

only 200,000 of our 600,000 state association members and with approximately 1,000,000 teachers in the United States, we see a clear challenge. Why should we not conduct local, state, and national membership campaigns as a unit on the budget plan and make such membership co-inclusive? This procedure is followed in some states with such gratifying results that in even this sad year of 1933 substantial gains have resulted to all concerned. May I pause to state that these membership drives are conducted on a purely voluntary basis. Their success depends upon professional leadership and the skilful use of educational methods: argument, persuasion, demonstration. We do not tolerate coercion either in securing memberships in our professional organizations or in achieving our purposes. The use of coercion in any way at any time is of itself a confession of the failure of educational methods. It is foreign to the basic principles of voluntary teachers associations.

Altho teaching has made rapid strides toward becoming a profession during the present century, we have not fully arrived, and are still confronted with factors that seem to make attainment of the goal well-nigh impossible. Until we can appeal successfully to the college and university professor and interest him in the learning and teaching process as well as in subjectmatter, until we can enlist the interest in professional organization of every faculty member who instructs prospective teachers, until we can secure the active cooperation in our associations of these men and women at the supposed head of the teaching fraternity, we can scarcely claim that teaching is a profession. At the other extreme there is a group of teachers who look upon their work as a job, a trade, that pays wages and who identify themselves with labor unions. For such, teaching is no profession. These fail to see that there is a clear line of demarcation between mechanics, artisans, labor, and the recognized professions of law, medicine, engineering, architecture, and accountancy. The hod carrier, altho he does an essential, honorable, and honest piece of work, will never feel at ease in an organization of skilled surgeons. All are workers, but the first works on the level of labor, the second on the level of a profession. Teaching still has its two extremes. Between the two, however, is the great body of professionally-trained, professionally-minded teachers who are earnestly and more or less successfully working out the destiny of teaching as a profession.

In this connection, it is interesting to recall that the American Federation of Teachers, whose representative this morning referred to teaching as a profession, published recently a bulletin entitled, *Objections Answered* in which appears the following:

“Teaching is a profession, not a trade. For generations public-school teachers have salved their pride with this pitiful substitute for adequate remuneration and a position of influence in the community. They have refused to face the obvious fact that whereas doctors, lawyers, architects, and other professional men can control their hours, the conditions under which they work, and the amount of their fees, teachers, as individuals, have almost no control over these matters so vital to their welfare. The results are that the vast majority of teachers receive a smaller annual wage than unskilled laborers,

and exert far less influence in their calling and in the community than any other skilled workers.

"The war has surely cleansed us of any remnants of such petty snobbery. The time has come for the teachers of the country to rid themselves of their narrow caste spirit and join hands with other workers in their assertion of independence and self-respect."

The time is at hand when teachers must think clearly and see to it that they and their voluntary professional organizations meet with firmness and good judgment the forces that would destroy the solidarity of our coming profession.

Discussion by J. W. Crabtree, Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

At one of the annual conventions of our Association over thirty years ago I had the honor of escorting our National Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris, to one of the department meetings where he was to deliver an address. As we passed thru the hotel lobby he stopped to shake hands with a group of men consisting of Dr. Beardshear, Dr. Seerley, Superintendent Pearce, Superintendent Soldan, and two or three other physical giants. They had been discussing some important problems of the profession. They fired a few questions at Dr. Harris before he could get away.

As we went on out of the hotel I referred to that "fine-looking group of men" as "veritable giants." "Yes," Dr. Harris said, "they are giants in more ways than one." Then as we went along the street he commented in his usual philosophical manner on what it meant to the individual and to society for big minds to have commodious, comfortable dwelling places. In listening to Mr. Newlon's remarkably fine address I could not help recalling that early incident and of feeling that here is another giant in more ways than one.

I heartily agree with Mr. Newlon in the fundamental principles which he sets forth—in his emphasis on the work of educational associations, his insistence that teachers need to study the social and economic problems as well as pedagogy, and his urging better leadership for the profession.

I am glad that in his theses he places primary emphasis on the work which our education associations do to improve the professional competency of their members. This is the foundation stone, and in proportion as the organizations are able to enlist the teachers and to lead them to work on the problems of the profession, they will grow in strength and in service to our civilization. The greatest achievement of professional organizations during the past decade, and the greatest hope of achievement in the years to come, lie in the active participation of teachers in the development of our professional and civic policies. Teachers are close to child needs. They are close to the homes. They see the wholesome effect of conditions which are favorable to child growth, and the devastating effect of unfavorable environments. They are sincere in their desire to improve conditions.

What teachers need is not so much freedom to say and to teach what ought to be said and taught, but as the speaker made clear, they need more in

research and more in knowledge. Teachers are not restrained from expressing honest opinions along social and economic lines half so much from fear of losing their positions as from ignorance of the problems involved. The public seldom fails to respect the well-informed teacher's point of view. It will, and perhaps should curb the careless, the extremist, and the intolerant. A license to teach ought not necessarily mean a license to put over unreliable information or propaganda. It must be remembered that teachers, like other people, have sometimes come forward with new and half-baked ideas, and they sometimes take sides unwisely on emotional or strictly controversial issues which could have very little value even at best. A little caution in such cases often saves the teacher from himself.

I liked the way a teacher handled the question of technocracy. The high-school students asked questions. She said that she didn't know just how much there was in it. That each of them could understand it as well as she could. "You know," she said, "some things have come along before we were ready for them. People's minds were not ready for the binomial theorem when it first came, but you know how simple it is now for all of you.

"Even those other professors up there at Columbia who have been starting things don't see thru technocracy yet. Perhaps our minds," she said, "will in the course of time develop up to it, or technocracy may yet in some way be brought down to the compass of our minds." Thereupon one of the students wrote: "Dear Dr. Scott: Our minds get all tangled up in your technocracy. Could you not make it as easy for us as the binominal theorem? Very truly yours, John."

Changes are taking place so rapidly, that when you start to say a thing should be done, it may come to pass before the sentence is completed. When Mr. Newlon began on his theses, and was pointing out the need of a great coordinating agency in the Association itself, the presidents of the National Education Association and of the Department of Superintendence impressed themselves with that need, and urged ahead by Mr. Newlon's point of view and that of other leaders were arranging for a joint emergency commission to meet the very situation set forth. The commission will present a preliminary report at this convention. While at present the major attention of the commission will be given to problems of the depression to prevent a breakdown in education, its larger purpose would permit it to undertake much of that outlined in this address, and I would like to see the council recommend that the commission broaden the scope of its work to include all essentials mentioned in this report. I hope the Council will recommend to the N. E. A. and to the Department of Superintendence that an effort be made to finance the commission adequately for its work. The endorsement of this address by the Council and its approval of the appointment of the commission would add strength to the movement.

I have already indicated that I consider this an exceptionally fine address. Mr. Newlon points out weaknesses, but only to show the need for improvement. We could mention other weaknesses. But we like the plan followed by Mr. Newlon in paying more attention to achievement than to mistakes.

His recommendations have grown out of an intimate knowledge of the work of the association. They assume that the achievements of state and national associations have been outstanding. They provide not for tearing down but for going ahead. They recognize that there are certain valuable democratic trends and seek to increase their momentum. In short his recommendations are highly constructive. They build on what we already have. They look up and ahead. They are farsighted. Again permit me to say that such theses could only come from one who is "a giant in more ways than one."

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis, Minn.

First Session, Friday Morning, February 24, 1933

The meeting was called to order by the President at 9:45 a.m. in the Flame Room of the Hotel Radisson.

In the absence of William A. Evans, Chairman of the Committee on an Institute of Education, the report of the committee was read by E. E. Oberholtzer, a member of the committee.

As the letter from the president of the University of Cincinnati, embodied in the report, indicated the possibility of holding a preliminary conference on an Institute of Education at the University in 1934, but not in 1933, the chairman of the committee suggested in the report that there seemed no reason for declining this invitation for 1934, but he felt that arrangements might still be made for a 1933 conference at some place other than the University of Cincinnati, and that the N. E. A. might assume some responsibility for defraying the small expense of such a preliminary conference.

The discussion that followed the reading of this report, centered very largely upon the suggestions of the chairman of the committee as to 1933 conference, especially regarding sources of funds.

It was thought by Mr. Oberholtzer that a preliminary conference might be called in Chicago immediately preceding the 1933 N. E. A. meeting there, with each state sending its leaders in education and the expense, which would be light, might be borne by the N. E. A. as suggested in the comments of the chairman. He feared the undertaking would lose zest if delayed. Mr. Saunders, member of the Board of Trustees of the N. E. A. and thoroly familiar with the finances of that organization, said the budget for 1933 would not allow of such additional expenditures. Mr. Gosling was heartily in favor of the proposal as originally set up if a workable and feasible plan could be developed.

In the opinion of Mr. Norton, it would be unfortunate to fall down by undue haste to do something.

It was also suggested by a representative from the University of Chicago, that if such an Institution were held in Chicago, August would be preferable to the last of June, which would just precede the N. E. A. meeting.

A motion made by Mr. Oberholtzer and seconded by Mr. Smith, that the Committee on an Institute of Education be empowered to act according to its best judgment on the possibility, feasibility, and probability of holding a preliminary conference on the relation of education to social and economic changes, was carried and a meeting of the committee called for noon Saturday.

In the absence of F. J. Kelly, Chairman of the Resolutions Committee, the preliminary report for that Committee was read for the consideration of the Council, by H. L. Smith, a member of the committee.

In the discussion of the report, Mr. Shotwell proposed an addition to the resolutions, of one dealing with the teaching of international relationships as part of the educational program of all countries, especially secondary schools and higher

institutions of learning, and that all government officials in positions that may involve international relationships, be required to take examinations in subjects involving international relationship content.

The president of the Council called attention to the formal Declaration offered by the American and British delegations to the Disarmament Conference, on the subject of moral disarmament, which presents a problem and opens an opportunity to the educational authorities of the countries concerned. This proposal, along with all other recommendations of the Disarmament Conference, had been referred back to the various governments for study and report to the conference when it reconvenes.

Miss Charl Williams thought some attention might be given by the Committee to a resolution dealing with the reorganization of federal agencies in education. This suggestion was also referred to the Committee on Resolutions for consideration in making the final draft. Miss Williams was asked by the president of the Council to meet with the committee.

In connection with these suggestions, which seemed to point directly to certain critical problems to be solved in education, the president of the Council expressed as his opinion, the necessity of making an effort to hold an Institute of Education this year. The possibility of securing financial aid from some foundation or individual was brought out and again the feasibility of holding the institution immediately preceding the 1933 meeting of the N. E. A. in Chicago was considered.

The secretary called attention to letters from absent members explaining the situations making it impossible for them to attend the Minneapolis meeting, and said if the Council did not object, she would adjust the records of their attendance on the basis of the letters. There was no objection to this suggestion.

The secretary read a letter from Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, for many years an active and leading member of the Council, in which she tendered her resignation as a member of the Council as she found it impossible to attend and actively participate in future meetings of the Council. The resignation was accepted with regret by the Council.

By this action, Mrs. Dorsey becomes a life honorary member of the National Council of Education.

Second Session, Friday Afternoon, February 24, 1933

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2 p.m. in the Flame Room of the Hotel Radisson.

At this meeting, Dr. Judd presented certain theses previously prepared by him on "An Evaluation of the Curriculum Revision Movement in American Education," and distributed in advance of the meeting to members of the Council.

Dr. Judd briefly set forth his claims for the four theses and his interpretation of certain portions of the same, making further classifications from time to time as questions were raised in connection with program speakers who followed in the discussion, and in the general discussion. Among other things, he stated that he did not agree with those opposing formal discipline, as he interprets it in education. In answer to the inquiry as to whether he could find a better way for determining curriculum content than thru the use of objectives, he stated that he was not interested in objectives but in trends. In his opinion, we must get children to think of civilization as moving in certain directions and this has demanded certain types of education. He gave illustrations of good elementary classroom instruction he had observed in writing and arithmetic, and declared his protest against the name "tool subjects" common among educators. In his opinion, arithmetic is a social study. Dr. Judd further expressed the view that economics can be taught in the lower grades as an accumulation of racial experiences.

The following scheduled to participate in the discussion of the theses, were present: H. B. Bruner, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y., Frank L. Clapp, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis., Arthur

Dondineau, Supervising Director of Instruction, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich. Their contributions in full, or resumés of the same, appear in this volume.

A general discussion then followed, in which it was brought out that many causes had operated to retard curriculum revision, among which might be included: 1. Weakness in programs of teacher-training institutions. 2. Lack of devices for evaluating studies as a basis for evaluating courses of study. 3. The fact that the materials of the social sciences and the like differ from, and are less formal than those of other subjects. 4. The scarcity of desirable textbooks in newer subjects.

It was suggested that textbook writers are responsible for the present situation in regard to the school curriculum. The conservatism of publishers and textbook writers was dwelt upon and it was suggested that one way out might be the publication of leaflets dealing with controversial questions not found, or easily included in textbooks.

Dr. Edmonson stated that he and Dr. Judd were members of a committee to meet with executive officers of publishing houses at their annual meeting to study textbook problems. In his opinion, school administrators and teacher-training institutions may also be indited for carelessness in the selection of textbooks.

Those participating in this general discussion, following the presentation and scheduled discussion of the theses, were: Thomas W. Gosling, Superintendent of Schools, Akron, Ohio., Frank M. Underwood, District Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo., E. E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools, Houston, Tex., Lotus D. Coffman, President, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn., J. B. Edmonson, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich., Joseph H. Saunders, Superintendent of City Schools, Newport News, Va., Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., Frank L. Clapp, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis., Arthur Dondineau, Supervising Director of Instruction, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.

On motion of E. E. Oberholtzer, the National Council of Education voted to create a special committee to participate in a proposed conference with the editors and executive officers of firms of publishers of instructional materials, and to bring back to the Council a report on the findings of such a conference, the principal aim of the conference to be the cultivation of a better understanding of the opinion of the profession relative to the quality and kinds of instructional materials that are needed in the schools.

Third Session, Saturday Morning, February 25, 1933

The meeting was called to order by the President at 9:30 a.m. in the Flame Room of the Hotel Radisson.

The president named as follows, the special committee for which provision was made at the preceding session of the Council, to confer with editors and executive officers of publishers of instructional materials: J. B. Edmonson, *Chairman*, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich., Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., S. D. Shankland, 1201 16th Street N. W., Washington, D. C., E. E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools, Houston, Tex., Frank M. Underwood, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo., William John Cooper, U. S. Commissioner of Education, U. S. Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C., Thomas W. Gosling, Superintendent of Schools, Akron, Ohio, R. O. Stoops, Superintendent of City Schools, Jacksonville, Ill., Joseph H. Saunders, Superintendent of Schools, Newport News, Va., Albert S. Cook, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Baltimore, Md., Ernest Horn, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind., J. M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, Calif., H. B. Bruner, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Dr. Newlon presented certain theses prepared by him on "The Function of Professional Organizations in the Field of Education," and distributed explanatory comments to members of the Council for consideration in advance of the meeting.

Dr. Newlon read, with certain brief interpolations, his comments on these theses.

The following persons formally scheduled to follow Dr. Newlon in the discussion of the theses, were present and participated: Mrs. Florence Curtis Hanson, Secretary, American Federation of Teachers, Chicago, Ill., S. A. Courtis, Former Secretary, National Society of College Teachers of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich., J. Herbert Kelley, Secretary, Pennsylvania State Education Association, Harrisburg, Pa., Charles F. Pye, Secretary, Iowa State Teachers Association, Des Moines, Iowa, S. D. Shankland, Executive Secretary, Department of Superintendence, N. E. A., Washington, D. C., and J. W. Crabtree, Secretary, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

These contributions in full, or briefs of the same, appear in this volume, with two exceptions (Charles F. Pye and S. D. Shankland).

Mr. Pye declaring that something must be done, and that first of all we must set our own house in order. He felt that there was immediate and pressing need for us to determine in some way, how to go about it to solve the problems that had been raised by the theses. In his opinion, Dr. Newlon is many years ahead of the time in the theses he has set up. Mr. Pye then asked permission to give the remainder of his time to Dr. Kelly. This was granted. Dr. Kelly briefly referred to the great need for social planning calling attention to the LaFollette Plan which the U. S. Congress had been asked to consider. He cited two important points in connection with this plan:

1. It asks for a council to be appointed by the President of the United States and approved by Congress to make reports from time to time to citizens of the United States and reports to councils in the United States for the dissemination of its findings and recommendations.
2. It would deal with educational matters, with no thought of having educational people identified with it.

In Dr. Kelly's opinion, education has a hand in this—it is really educational and not political. There will be created in this country, social and economic councils and educators should have a share in the formulation of these policies and plans.

S. D. Shankland stated that teachers are also citizens of the United States. In former years this was not so true or so apparent as at the present time. He said that after reading the theses, he had read thru the programs of the N. E. A. for several years and found a distinct change in trends. The earlier programs dealt more largely with technics, procedures, and the like in education, but not large social matters, as is the tendency today. It is not education alone, as usually interpreted, on which to center attention, but also cooperative leadership.

Mr. Shankland pointed out that Dr. F. J. Kelly is chairman of the N. E. A. commission to study social and economic trends and is also a member of the committee for the preparation of the 1935 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence on Social and Economic Problems. By this arrangement, Dr. Kelly forms a liaison between the two organizations in the study of social and economic trends, and unnecessary duplication is avoided.

Mr. Shankland feels that we do not want too many groups interfering and overlapping. A joint steering committee for the N. E. A. and the Department of Superintendence might show what careful organization can accomplish by way of eliminating overlapping and interfering.

In the general discussion of the theses that followed, Dr. Newlon earnestly expressed himself in favor of a type of education that reaches every child and is opposed to a caste system of any kind, which to his thinking is not only not American, but neither Christian nor social.

Mr. Saunders called attention to the activities of Chambers of Commerce, that presume to speak authoritatively on all subjects, and declared that we are asleep at the switch, and should organize our educational forces in some way to be a more effective instrument at this time.

Mrs. Hanson emphasized the stand taken by the American Federation of Labor for higher salaries for teachers and other liberalizing principles as opposed to that taken by Chambers of Commerce.

Growing out of this discussion, much of which centered on Thesis XI, the Council voted unanimously to submit Thesis XI to the N. E. A. Delegate Assembly for consideration with a view to its endorsement by that body.

Dr. Kelly, chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, presented the final report of that committee.

Prior to the discussion of this report, the president of the Council ruled that these resolutions as finally adopted by the Council would be referred to both the Department of Superintendence and the Representative Assembly of the N. E. A. A number of questions were raised as to the import of these resolutions, especially Resolutions 10, 11, and 12, which were answered by the chairman of the committee, and some objection raised to Resolution 14 in its present wording. On motion, Resolution 10 was adopted.

Motions were carried to omit Resolutions 11 and 12, but later such action was rescinded thru a motion to leave to the chairman of the committee and the president of the Council the revision of 12 to accord with the suggestions from the floor, and to modify 10 to include the import of Dr. Newlon's Thesis XI, Resolution 14 and 15 were also adopted, with the understanding that the chairman of the committee and the president of the Council would clear up any wording in both of them necessary for a correct interpretation.

On this basis, the 15 resolutions were adopted and a committee consisting of the chairman of the Resolutions Committee and the president of the Council was empowered by the Council to make such modifications in any of the resolutions as seemed necessary for clarification of meaning. The final report as agreed upon by the chairman of the Resolutions Committee and the president of the National Council of Education, follows:

1. In a democracy equal educational opportunity must be available to all not only as the inherent right of every individual, but as the essential safeguard of democracy.
2. The organized school and college is the principal agency established by society to assure every individual this right.
3. This right is being so seriously infringed today that American educators should be aroused to an unaccustomed militancy on behalf of schools. This militancy should express itself in vigorous insistence that this generation of children shall not be deprived of its only chance.
4. As the complexity of modern life has increased, the unequal distribution of wealth has been accentuated, leaving some communities much less able than others to provide an adequate educational program. Therefore we recommend a revision of our taxation system, a widening of the tax unit, a substantial increase in the proportion of educational expenditures borne by the state and by the federal governments with such adjustments as will protect and encourage local initiative.
5. We affirm the belief that just and equitable taxes based on ability to pay form the most economical means of financing public works of which education is one of the most important.
6. The present crisis in education calls for emphasis upon the unusual phase of the responsibility of education. The present infringement of the rights of children is due mostly to the breakdown of our adult social order. This situation bears impressive testimony to the fact that education must at all times concern itself with the social and economic problems underlying social stability and progress if it is not to see its work with children largely nullified. We recommend, therefore, that greater emphasis be placed on the social studies in the curriculums of colleges, teacher-training institutions, and of secondary and elementary schools. Above all, however, since the correction of our social maladjustments calls for active participation by all thoughtful persons this present social breakdown makes clear the need of a much enlarged and better organized program of adult education, including especially a program for teachers now in service.

7. The social-economic revolution thru which the world, particularly America, is passing is the inevitable accompaniment of the scientific development of recent decades. To build a social order competent to make with minimum social friction and individual hardship the difficult adjustments of such a revolution, is the fundamental task of American education.

8. That these necessary adjustments have been and are still being made at the price of such vast hardships to the people reflects unfavorably upon the achievements of education including schools and other agencies in recent decades and calls for a searching examination of the fundamental objectives as well as of the materials and methods used in American education.

9. It is the foremost obligation of education to seek out the underlying causes of the present grievous maladjustments; to forecast, with all the wisdom at its command, the social-economic developments of the near future; and heroically to redirect education so as to reduce to a minimum the personal hardships, and the social stresses and strains which tend to accompany rapid social changes, and at the same time to assure to the largest number of people the abundant life which current scientific development should make possible.

10. To carry out this obligation calls for a national council on social-economic planning as forecast by the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, and as urged so cogently by the educators who memorialized the President-elect of the United States urging him to establish such a council.

11. When established, such a national council should be fully representative of our total social life, including agriculture, labor, industrial management, medicine, engineering, law, education, and welfare. It should be constituted in such a way as to give assurance that everything that is done may be directed with an intelligent understanding of the larger social issues involved. Inasmuch as such a national council will serve inevitably as a powerful educative agency in the formation of public opinion, it should have all the safeguards which other educative agencies have. Such a council we respectfully petition the President of the United States, in cooperation with the Congress, to bring into existence at the earliest possible time.

12. The profession should strengthen its facilities to uphold individual educators who may suffer unjust persecution following their active participation in the solution of social and economic problems.

13. Among the probable and desirable steps likely to be taken in the reorganization of the federal government, departments and agencies having to do with education should undoubtedly be coordinated and unified. To this end, we respectfully call to the attention of the President of the United States the report of the National Advisory Committee on Education with its significant data and recommendations.

14. We commend the interest of the Congress in the tragic fate of the youth of this country now thrown among the multitude of the unemployed. When and if some measure is passed to bring these youth under the protection and care of the government, we urge the absolute necessity that the program of activities arranged for them outside of their housing, feeding, and discipline, should be intrusted to some educational agency, and not to the War Department.

15. We affirm that social-economic problems today are worldwide problems and must be solved on a worldwide basis. We, therefore, commend the efforts and program of the American and British delegations to the Disarmament Conference, embodied in their formal declaration on the subject of Moral Disarmament. These delegations proposed, among other things, that the several nations agree to recommend to their competent educational authorities the study of the principles and application of pacific settlement of international disputes and of the renunciation of war as an instrument of national policy, and to prescribe those subjects to all examinations for government positions which may involve relations with other countries, not only in the consular and diplomatic service, but in all branches of the national government.

Chicago, Illinois

First Session, Friday Afternoon, June 30, 1933

The meeting was called to order in the South Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel at 2 p.m., by the president of the Council.

The preliminary report of the Committee on Resolutions was presented by the chairman, Fred J. Kelly. He gave a brief resumé of the comments from Council members on the resolutions adopted at the winter (1933) meeting of the Council, to all of whom copies had been sent by the secretary of the Council for their further reaction to the resolutions as a basis for a philosophy of education. These replies were almost unanimously favorable comments on the resolutions, and commendations of the same.

The chairman emphasized certain points in the earlier resolutions and read a few additional ones the committee had agreed upon as supplementary to them. These supplementary resolutions will appear in the portion of this record that gives an account of the Council meeting Saturday afternoon, July 1. The chairman stated that after all, the teacher was the real key to the solution of our educational problems and commented strongly on the great need of all teachers for increased knowledge of the social sciences. He advised that the resolutions had been submitted to the Representative Assembly of the N. E. A. for action.

In the discussion that followed, Superintendent Thomas W. Gosling, Akron, Ohio, questioned the wisdom of the participation of teachers in controversial social problems as yet not clearly understood by leaders themselves, but it was explained that a careful selection of content must be made, and in the opinion of the chairman, all teachers in preemployment training, before entering upon the technical courses for special professional training for teaching, should have pursued a two-year course following high school, in which social sciences would be much emphasized.

In answer to the inquiry as to how this social science content could best reach teachers in service, the chairman suggested that certain pages of educational journals could well be devoted to the consideration of social changes, social problems, and social schemes. Certain phases of these social situations and problems should reach teachers as well as school administrators, and the profession itself should assume this responsibility. As dealt with in the daily papers and current magazines, all sides of these problems are not presented. The chairman felt that the Research Division of the N. E. A. could well furnish materials for the N. E. A. and other professional journals.

In response to the inquiry of the president of the Council as to whether in the opinion of the chairman of the Resolutions Committee a specialist in research in the field of social science should be added to the present N. E. A. staff, the chairman said that there should be first of all, a selected group of wise sociologists and economists, political scientists and historians, to guide the policies of the N. E. A. and unify all services including the N. E. A. JOURNAL in the interest of the social science field. To these suggestions, Joy E. Morgan, editor of the N. E. A. JOURNAL, responded that such had been the policy of the N. E. A. and that specialists had been brought in from time to time, or regularly employed on the staff for this purpose.

In the opinion of Florence Hale, former president of the N. E. A. and close to the headquarters organization, no additional staff was needed in the Research Division. The present staff could make the necessary and recommended cooperations and contacts.

In the opinion of Superintendent Joseph H. Saunders, Newport News, Virginia, since fields other than social science had not been brought into the picture, there might be some misunderstanding. He raised the question as to why not have the content of the educational journals confined to professional articles, with occasional articles of another type? He felt it best not to push this recommendation at the present time, to the Representative Assembly. The chairman responded that whether or not teachers and educational journals should stay away from these crucial problems,

educators as a whole cannot keep away from them. They must get into them some way, and instead of leaving themselves in the hands of those people who do these things, education should have its share in the interpretation of these controversial issues. Educators must assume responsibility for social failures as well as successes.

Mr. Gosling stated that we could not secure a consensus. He pointed out the necessity, and at the same time the difficulty or impossibility, of bringing to the attention of teachers all available materials in these lines. Various opinions could not be forced upon them—regimented, so to speak—they must be left to form their own opinions on the basis of available materials. It cannot be a process of indoctrination.

J. O. Malott of the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., felt that to popularize such information would not necessarily indoctrinate teachers. Emphasis should be put on facts rather than on interpretations, and such materials made accessible in readable, understandable terms.

For further work on the resolutions following this discussion of the preliminary report, and in the absence of some members of the Resolutions Committee, Dr. Bagley, president of the Council, appointed Thomas W. Gosling, A. W. Castle, and Rose Pesta as substitute members to work with the Resolutions Committee in making the final draft for presentation the following day.

Joy E. Morgan, editor of the N. E. A. JOURNAL, then addressed the Council on "Democracy and Education, A Discussion of the Work of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education." This address appears in full in this volume.

Mr. Morgan commented on the types of work undertaken by the commission and the avenues thru which information had been publicized such as leaflets developed in cooperation with the schools. He read excerpts from his paper with clarifying comments.

Thomas E. Benner, dean of the College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, led in the discussion of this address. His paper also appears in this volume.

Dr. Benner felt that in supplementing the education of those who have completed undergraduate work, there should be more emphasis on breadth. He believes the training of graduate students today, is very narrow—there are many Ph.D. degrees granted when not a single course in philosophy has been pursued by the candidate. The president of the Council stated that the Council would be glad to consider a resolution on this point. He added that of all civilized countries in this depression, the United States alone is closing schools and cutting salaries of its teachers.

Second Session, Saturday Morning, July 1, 1933

The meeting was called to order in the South Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel at 9:30 a.m., by the president of the Council.

Dr. James F. Hosc, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y., presented the plan for the proposed yearbook on materials of instruction, to be compiled by the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.

This yearbook will deal with junior and senior high school curriculum materials.

Dr. Hosc commented on certain points in connection with this proposed outline, pointing out the need for (1) a variety of texts inasmuch as the same textbook makes the curriculum static; (2) the social science; (3) improved classroom instruction; (4) proper teaching materials vs. equipment; (5) supervisors' recognition of their responsibility for supplying proper teaching materials; (6) aims and objectives when reached cooperatively being made mandatory; (7) best selection of materials to active aims and objectives optional with teacher; (8) acceptance of the neighborhood situations as the real test of teaching and the real determinant of teaching materials.

Dr. Hosc sought cooperation of the Council in further development of outline and sources for teaching materials.

Dr. Kelly called attention to the new materials for instruction developed by the American Council on Education.

Edward C. Carter, Secretary of the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations, New York City, addressed the Council on "The Far East in American Public Education." Copies of his address had been distributed to members of the Council prior to the meeting so that they would have a better basis for discussion when the topic was presented by Mr. Carter at the meeting.

Mr. Carter said that in relation to familiarizing pupils and people in general with that third of the human family not in our textbooks, the museums were far ahead of the schools. A knowledge of these peoples enriches life and broadens the mind. He referred to the Lincoln School, Columbia University, as the one center of instruction where the Western youth meets Eastern culture.

Charl O. Williams, Field Secretary of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., called attention to the relation of the culture of India to Great Britain and the problems of its proper functioning, to which Mr. Carter pointed out that the relations there were very different, being those of master and servant, rather than coordinate natures.

Edith P. Parker, University of Chicago, led in the discussion of the address of Mr. Carter. Miss Parker feels that real geography points out how people are taking hold of their environment and using it. She emphasized the importance of that function of geography in relation to world affairs. In her opinion, there is no place in the primary grades for a science of geography on which there should be increased emphasis in the junior and senior high school.

Ernest Horn of the University of Iowa at Iowa City, Iowa, expressed the belief that educators need to have clearly and concretely in mind just what they expect to have in the minds of pupils after a study of the Far East. Concrete inquiry, journeys, friezes, and the like, often give pupils an idea of "what is not."

Dr. Hosic illustrated the narrow conception of a certain Congressman, who said, "I wish I could build a high fence around the United States so no one could come in and no one go out."

Anna Laura Force, Principal of the Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, gave illustrations of letters interchanged between her pupils and children in India, as a means of assisting in interpretation of life in other lands.

It was the consensus that no attempt be made to develop a course of study in relation to the Far East without adequate background.

Dr. Kelly emphasized the fact that in all this work in social science, any attempt to regiment teachers into certain lines of thought would be utterly at variance to the thought of those working in those fields.

William A. Evans, Principal of the Rothenberg Junior High School, Cincinnati, Ohio, and chairman of the Committee on an Institute of Education, gave a brief resumé of the development of the work in that direction.

The president of the Council explained that an underwriting of the enterprise should be done soon, and authority granted Mr. Evans and himself to make the necessary approach to interest organizations with funds, in support of such a venture. On motion of Dr. Hosic, seconded by Dr. Kelly, blanket authority was accorded the Committee on an Institute of Education, to proceed with the undertaking as seemed best to the chairman and committee members.

Third Session, Saturday Afternoon, July 1, 1933

The meeting was called to order in the West Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel, at 2:10 p.m., by the President of the Council. Joseph H. Saunders, Superintendent of Schools, Newport News, Virginia, acted as secretary pro tem.

John S. Brubacher, Graduate School of Education, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, presented a paper entitled "The Annual Review of Educational Happenings." This paper was discussed by John Guy Fowlkes, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. Mr. Fowlkes defended the general property tax, urged that all taxes should be turned into the general treasury and apportioned according to service, advocated the employment of married teachers, and also the selective process

in teacher-training institutions. Others who participated in this discussion were E. E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools, Houston, Texas; J. A. Lynch, Rice Institute, Texas; Charl O. Williams, Field Secretary, N. E. A., Washington, D. C.; and Frank G. Pickell, Superintendent of Schools, Montclair, New Jersey.

The report of the Committee on Membership to supply vacancies in office and membership of the Council, was read by the Secretary pro tem, and unanimously approved by the Council. The following were declared duly elected:

I. Officers:

1. Elected with term expiring in 1936:

Vicepresident—Lida Lee Tall, Principal, State Normal School, Towson, Maryland. To succeed Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey.

Members, Committee on Membership—Rose Pesta, Windermere Hotel, Chicago, Illinois. To succeed Carroll G. Pearse.

H. L. Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. To succeed Robert H. Wright.

2. Reelected with term expiring in 1936:

Member, Executive Committee—Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colorado.

II. Membership:

1. Reelected with term expiring in 1938:

(No action was taken by the Council in 1932 on these memberships—expiring in that year—because the new Constitution was being formulated.)

Katherine D. Blake, 101 West 85th Street, New York, N. Y.

Frank P. Graves, Commissioner of Education, Albany, N. Y.

F. J. Kelly, Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

W. Carson Ryan, Educational Director, Indian Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

Henry Suzzallo, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Caroline S. Woodruff, Principal, State Normal School, Castleton, Vermont.

J. C. Wright, 5624 Western Avenue, Chevy Chase, Md.

2. Reelected with term expiring in 1939:

W. C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Milton Bennion, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Isabel L. Eckles, Superintendent of City Schools, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

J. B. Edmonson, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colorado.

Frank G. Pickell, Superintendent of Schools, Montclair, New Jersey.

E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebr.

Mrs. Margaret Smith, 1522 Lafayette Street, Denver, Colo.

A. L. Threlkeld, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colo.

3. Elected with term expiring in 1939:

Dean T. E. Bener, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

Boyd H. Bode, Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Guy M. Whipple, Secretary, National Society for the Study of Education, Danvers, Mass.

Margaret Kiely, Principal, City Normal, Bridgeport, Conn.

Dean William S. Gray, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

E. D. Roberts, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.

L. A. Peckstein, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 L. A. Alderman, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.
 William Burdick, State Department of Education, Baltimore, Md.
 Marion S. Clark, 205 Mt. Auburn Street, Cambridge, Mass.
 J. Stevens Kadesch, Head Master, Medford High School, Medford, Mass.
 David A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Chester, Pa.
 R. C. Deming, State Board of Education, Hartford, Conn.
 J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education,
 Albany, N. Y.
 Winifred J. Robinson, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware.
 Will Crawford, Territorial Superintendent of Schools, Honolulu, Hawaii.

F. J. Kelly, chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, submitted the report for that committee which was unanimously adopted. The resolutions adopted at the Minneapolis meeting, February 25, 1933, were readopted by the Committee at the Chicago meeting on July 1, 1933, with the following additional resolutions:

- "1. In a modern democracy, organized education—meaning primarily schools, colleges, universities and other adult education agencies—holds the key to social advance. Therefore, organized education, along with other social institutions must accept its fair share of criticism for the social and economic ills which afflict American society. The deep-seated nature of these ills imposes new and greatly increased responsibilities upon education.
2. To meet these responsibilities, teachers must be acquainted with the basic principles of the social sciences, conversant with the issues involved in current social life, and willing to participate in solving the pressing problems now before the American people.
3. The education of every prospective teacher should include such social science as will assure an understanding of the principles underlying social living. To accomplish this end, teacher-training institutions are urged to make suitable changes in their curriculums, and certificating agencies are urged to include among the requirements for all certificates adequate study of the social sciences.
4. Members of college and university faculties in which prospective teachers are educated, should themselves be broadly educated and should possess a keen appreciation of the social significance of scholarship. To this end, graduate schools are urged to modify the curriculums designed to prepare for college teaching so as to emphasize broad social education and to assure an effective integration of the entire program for the education of teachers.
5. State departments of education, county and city superintendents, and others in like positions of authority and leadership, should encourage and ultimately require teachers in service to have a broad understanding of social and economic issues.
6. As one means of facilitating the in-service training of teachers, in the social sciences, the National Education Association is invited to devise some plan whereby authoritative materials necessary to keep teachers conversant with current social-economic developments may be made most readily available to all the members of the profession.

Signed

Committee on Resolutions

A. W. Castle

Thomas W. Gosling

Fred J. Kelly, Chairman.

Rose Pesta

Henry Lester Smith

Lida Lee Tall"

NOTE: These resolutions were submitted to the Representative Assembly on Friday, July 7, by the Secretary pro tem, and were unanimously adopted by the Representative Assembly.

Departments of the Association

THE growth of departments in the Association began in 1870 when the American Normal School Association became the Department of Normal Schools (now Department of Teachers Colleges), and the National Association of School Superintendents became the Department of Superintendence.

Another great forward step was taken in 1921 when departments were given larger independence and responsibility. This led to the establishment of fees by the stronger departments and to the selection of an executive secretary by the Department of Superintendence.

There are now twenty-three departments. Information regarding their organization may be found in the historical note at the beginning of the section devoted to the department in question. The list of departments with years of organization is as follows:

1. Administrative Women in Education.....	1932
2. Adult Education	1921
3. Art Education	1933
4. Business Education	1892
5. Classroom Teachers	1914
6. Deans of Women.....	1918
7. Educational Research	1930
8. Elementary School Principals.....	1921
9. Kindergarten-Primary Education	1884
10. Lip Reading	1926
11. Rural Education	1907
12. School Health and Physical Education.....	1894
13. Science Instruction	1894
14. Secondary Education	1886
15. Secondary School Principals.....	1928
16. Social Studies	1925
17. Special Education	1930
18. Superintendence	1870
19. Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.....	1928
20. Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics.....	1930
21. Teachers Colleges	1925
22. Visual Instruction	1923
23. Vocational Education	1875

Department of Administrative Women in Education

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN IN EDUCATION was organized in Oakland, Calif., in 1915 by a group of women in attendance at the annual meeting of the National Education Association. One of its purposes set forth in its constitution at that time was to strengthen the friendly and professional relations of administrative women in educational work and to maintain high professional standards among them. It has branches in eighteen states.

Since its organization the Council has held two meetings a year, one during the convention of the Department of Superintendence in February, and another during the annual meeting of the Association in the summer. At the Atlantic City meeting application was made to the Board of Directors for the admission of the Council as a Department and favorable action on the application was taken by the Representative Assembly on Friday morning, July 1, 1932.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Annie C. Woodward, 100 Highland Avenue, Somerville, Mass.; *Vicepresident*, Anna Laura Force, Principal, Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colo.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Margaret Mendenhall Smith, 1522 Lafayette Street, Denver, Colo.; *Treasurer*, Elizabeth Wells Robertson, Supervisor of Art, Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.; *Auditor*, Evelyn Butler, Butler University, Indianapolis, Ind.; *Directors*: Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa; Sue Powers, Superintendent, Shelby County Schools, Memphis, Tenn.; Mary E. O'Connor, Supervisor, Elementary Schools, Natick, Mass.; Eva G. Pinkston, Executive Secretary, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street. N. W., Washington, D. C.; Rose Pesta, 460 South State Street, Chicago, Ill.

ARE OUR SCHOOLS TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP?

ROSE A. PESTÁ, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

I wonder how many of us really know how well our schools are training for citizenship, for the methods of teaching have improved in this field as much as if not more than in many others. For most of us, I presume citizenship training consisted mainly in learning the divisions and functions of government, and the names of the then officials with something of their powers and duties. Nowadays, the training in citizenship, while including that, takes a much more active and practical form. Naturally, in giving examples, I shall cite mainly from the Chicago schools, not because they do this any better than other schools, but because I am more familiar with them.

The pupils help to solve the problems that arise because large groups of young people are gathered together by serving as monitors and marshals of various sorts. In this way they get some experience, not only in the duties, responsibilities, and honors of office, but some experience too in its temptations. It is so easy to make just a little variation in the application of a rule for a friend. The results of such variations in inefficiency of service, in increased infractions, are so soon apparent. The school tries to help the pupils to foresee these temptations, to meet and overcome them, to realize what they are doing to school service if they do not live up to the responsibilities of their trust. In the management of the affairs of their clubs, which are so definite a part of the school program today, they get experience in working together, in carrying a project to a successful conclusion. And in this work they get all the effect of the failure of each to do his share upon the total enterprise.

Then in the self-government organizations in the school, the pupils have an opportunity to make rules under which they shall live, and in large measure the opportunity of experience in enforcing them.

Thus, in all these ways that I have indicated, the school is trying to train a generation of young people into a new understanding of government with a new attitude toward public service, and with some practical experience in the management and the control of government.

In regard to all this experience, there have always been, as I have seen it, two attitudes. The one that these pupil affairs should be more or less unhampered by direction. Of course, the difference of opinion is in the more or less. But as I see it, the one school of thought is willing to let trickery occur, is willing to have school elections carried by some irregularity because that is the way things occur in regular life. While they regret it, the idea seems to be that since that is the way things happen in the real world, if these children are to be given experience that will help them in the real world, graft and crooked politics must be permitted to exist in the management of school affairs by pupils when they occur. Otherwise there is no real self-government. The other point of view is that school should not be an actual

picture of life, it should be simplified living, and that orderly and as near as possible ideal living which would mean a large element of direction, assistance, indeed interference when things are going wrong.

Let me give an illustration. An election for mayor is occurring. The candidate, Candidate A, on one side, or his campaign manager makes a claim for him that is not true. The opposing candidate, whom we shall call Candidate B, knows the claim to be untrue. It is a matter of school record, and, therefore, one which the school officials could easily verify. The school office takes the attitude that they do not wish to interfere in an election, that if anything is to be done about it Candidate B is publicly to challenge Candidate A. Candidate B and his family consider that that would be entering into dirty politics, and if the school will do nothing about it, they will not. Now, here you see is a "nice" problem in ethics, and one which I feel illustrates very clearly the point I am trying to make. In actual life Candidate B or his followers would have had to challenge the statement made by Candidate A's followers. Should it have been so in school politics? I do not think it should. This seems to me a clear case in which the school should step in and announce the falsity of the claim. Otherwise the young people are getting the impression that any claims are all right, provided one can get away with them. Furthermore, while one does wish to give young people freedom to choose, to decide, to judge in order to train their ability to choose wisely and judge accurately, one must recognize that there is a difference in making individual judgments that affect only themselves, and in making judgments that affect some activity of the school. One can allow for mistakes in judgment that affect merely themselves. Only by having the opportunity to make these mistakes, and learning by them can the children grow in real and abiding character. But when it comes to mistakes that affect the whole school, that is the place for the school to take charge and simplify the situation. In the management of school affairs it seems to me to be the job of school people to see that no irregularity, no trickery enters into the matter.

Whichever of the two theories one holds or operates under, it is undoubtedly safe to say that the typical school situation is decidedly above the average life situation in standards of ethics and personal conduct.

I believe that the longer we can get the young people to manage affairs under ideal conditions, the more established will be the habit and the consciousness that projects can be undertaken, brought to a satisfactory conclusion with efficiency and without graft, that elections can be won by honest methods. It is our hope that they will adhere to that habit and belief after they leave us. And that is the only final solution of our civic problems—that we shall train up one generation after another who know that honest, straight-forward methods do work in the efficient management of community affairs. It is said that one factor causing man to become so highly developed an animal is the long period of infancy. In civic affairs, it seems to me similarly that if we can give our young people a long period of the management of affairs under ideal conditions that we work toward the improvement of

the management of conditions in the real world, for we get more and more people having a belief built upon experience of the efficacy of honest methods. Whether or not there is any parallelism this much is true, that our civic affairs will never be rightly run until enough of us believe they can be so run. Quite too many of us take graft and corruption as the natural and inevitable concomitant of civic affairs to be hopeful of any great and immediate improvement.

To return to our forms of citizenship training in our schools, we try to teach the proper attitude toward public property thru the public property with which the pupils first come in contact; namely, street lamps, the school building.

In our desire to give our young people practical experience in civic matters, we have cooperated with certain activities outside the school, such as safety patrol work and clean-up campaigns. In both these campaigns there are certain questionable elements which I have not time to discuss. Both have without doubt given the children a greater insight into the problems of the city.

Chicago has now for some years observed a Youth Week. In the various programs, the civic responsibility of youth is emphasized. Speakers are chosen from among the prominent men who have civic consciousness. On these occasions pupils who have been high in scholarship, who have shown especial qualities of leadership and civic responsibility, are recognized as honor students. A certain few are given scholarships to the universities in and about Chicago.

Among the girls there has now been held for two years an all-city high-school girls conference to which delegates are sent from all the high schools. In these conferences they discuss such matters as: "How does high school enable us to vote wisely?" The whole tendency of the conference is to awaken the civic consciousness of the girls, and help them to understand their responsibilities as citizens.

Classes taken to visit the various governing bodies function to an increasing degree. Even up in a small town in Michigan I found the civics class attending a meeting of the County Court, which occurred in an adjoining town. The children of our schools are regularly discussing present-day problems and their solution. Their interest in these problems was strikingly illustrated this year in the activity of the Chicago high-school pupils for pay for their teachers. The pupils even sent a delegation to Washington, seeing officials of the National Education Association, and such others as they could reach.

But at least in one respect I am not at all certain that we are doing as much as we can for these children. Are we giving them the consciousness that in the field of social planning we lag way behind our progress in the material field—the field of science, invention, and, dare we say, business? For example, it is a matter of history that there have always been inflation and depression after a war. Why didn't the government face this and do some planning? Seemingly, it is our practise to handle problems in our social and political life only when there is a crisis. Social planning means meeting the

problems ahead of time, forestalling the crisis. It would seem to me that this is an idea we could easily put over at least in Chicago, for our pupils all know of the Chicago plan for making the city beautiful. If there needs to be a plan formulated and adhered to for years in the matter of streets and buildings, how much more necessary a plan for living together?

But some one may say, "How can we make a plan with regard to living together, since we change our ideals so frequently?" At one time, we believe in prohibition, at another time we do not. But the same is true with regard to our buildings. The architecture of today is not that of 1893, as is so vividly brought out by our fairs. Similarly in living together, society feels a responsibility today for the unemployed that did not exist at all at the time of our last world's fair. While this sense of responsibility exists all over the United States, and indeed all over the world, it is met quite differently in different places. In our smaller places, at least as I know them, for the money expended in relief, definite service in return is exacted, whereas this is not true in the cities, certainly not in Chicago. This is one of our problems in social planning in our cities that we must work out. It is a fine illustration of the fact that a great many of these social questions go back to questions of finance. In this field certainly we do not do as much as we should. In any of our big cities the problems of finance are very complicated. Yet these problems are really in the background of all of our social problems.

Most public questions are finally ones of finance, just as finance looms large in any decisions in the home. The difficulty of the problem is no excuse for avoiding it altogether. There are, I think, certain fundamental ideas one might start with.

One I have already discussed fully. There should be honesty in the running of government. It is possible, examples can be given. Only as we expect honesty, and are ourselves honest, can we bring about this condition.

We should not expect future generations to pay for what we are now using. As a general rule, bonds issued should be paid up before the thing for which they are issued wears out. If necessary to issue them in other circumstances there should be complete understanding with respect to these circumstances.

I believe that our high-school children might understand not a little of inflated values and the precautions to be taken in lending upon them. This whole field of finance, as I am thinking of it, would constitute new ground for our high schools. I believe that we would find we can do much more than we think if we made a start in this field.

Despite the fact that I feel there are some things more for us to do, I am very hopeful of the future. I feel the young people of today are getting practical training in citizenship such as never was had in our schools before. That fact combined with the fact that in our high schools today we have so large a part of the population makes me confident that the young people of today will do a better job at governing than has our generation. They may even be able to solve the problems of living together in large cities, problems which have thus far baffled us.

Department of Adult Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION was established by vote of the Representative Assembly, July 8, 1921, as the Department of Immigrant Education. The first meeting was held in 1922 in Boston. See *Proceedings*, 1922:905. In 1924 the name of the Department was changed to the Department of Adult Education. See *Proceedings*, 1924:566.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Mary L. Guyton, Supervisor of Adult Alien Education, State Department of Education, Boston, Mass.; *Secretary*, Caroline A. Whipple, Supervisor of Adult Education, State Education Department, Albany, N. Y.; *Treasurer*, Agnes Winn, Director, Division of Classroom Service, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.; *Executive Director*, Charles J. Lunak, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.; *Editor*, Alonzo D. Grace, Professor of Education, University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.; *Executive Committee*: L. R. Alderman, Chief, Service Division, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; Robert C. Deming, Supervisor, Division of Field Service, State Board of Education, Hartford, Conn.

This Department meets once a year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:460	1924:565-582	1927:293-334	1930:249-274
1922:905-968	1925:337-353	1928:263-304	1931:315-341
1923:669-703	1926:329-371	1929:277-316	1932:263-281

EDUCATING THE PRISONER

A. H. MAC CORMICK, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF THE BUREAU OF PRISONS,
DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Among the most fruitful fields of effort for those interested in the education of adults is the American prison. In the institutions for long-term prisoners alone, there are 150,000 men and women, and the population of short-term institutions totals nearly half a million. To those who wish to join in the war on crime by use of one of our most constructive agencies, educational work for prisoners presents a striking opportunity.

That there is a need and a desire for education in our prisons and reformatories for adults is well known to penologists. Psychological tests administered to thousands of prisoners in various sections of the country indicate that their mental status is approximately that of the Army draft group. Standard achievement tests show that the great majority cannot pass a sixth-grade test, that at least 10 percent are totally illiterate, and that an additional 15 percent are practically illiterate. Studies of their occupational histories show that only a minority have had adequate vocational training.

In those institutions where educational opportunities possessing reality and significance for the prisoner are offered, a substantial percentage of the prisoners voluntarily enrol for educational work. In the federal penitentiaries, for example, 75 percent of all the prisoners received at two of the institutions request educational work, and 90 percent at a third. Seventy percent of the prisoners in one federal penitentiary are voluntarily taking courses ranging from Beginners English to Diesel Engineering.

In a number of state prisons the possibilities of educational work have been demonstrated. These institutions range in size from the California state prisons at San Quentin and the Michigan state prison at Jackson, each of which has over five thousand prisoners, to the two-hundred-man prison in Utah.

The most effective educational programs in state institutions are those developed with the aid of state educational authorities. San Quentin, where over half the prisoners are studying, offers a striking illustration of what cooperation can accomplish. Here the state department of education, the University of California, and the state library work closely with the prison authorities.

In the greater number of our prisons there is no educational program worthy of the name. In my opinion, there will be no substantial extension of educational effort in this field on the initiative of prison officials. Leadership must be assumed by educational authorities from outside the walls. Those interested in adult education have already given their backing to the movement to educate prisoners. Continued effort will gradually overcome that official apathy which is the chief obstacle to prison education.

BASIC ENGLISH

MARY L. GUYTON, SUPERVISOR OF ADULT ALIEN EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

The chief sponsor of this new international language is C. K. Ogden, Magdalen College, Cambridge, England, and Director of the Orthological Institute, Cambridge, England, and author and editor of many books on the psychology of languages. In cooperation with him are many of the leading scholars the world over. Basic English has been before the public eye for the last ten years in its process of development and trial in many of the great nations of the world. Last summer on Mr. Ogden's visit to America many college authorities and scientific organizations in the United States became extremely interested and believe it is the most promising of mediums of world communication.

The following two paragraphs appeared in the *New York Times*:

A statement was recently issued by fifty scholars of worldwide fame who are convinced of the urgent need for an international auxiliary language. They feel that some form of simplified English such as Basic English offers will best meet the demand. The statement is signed by Dr. John Dewey, Professor Julian S. Huxley, Professor E. D. Starbuck, Professor Y. Okakura, George Bernard Shaw, A. Lloyd James, Wickham Steed, and H. G. Wells.

Within ten years, Mr. Ogden believes, there will be world radio for knitting the nations together. A nucleus for it is already forming. Radio experts plan to put a girdle of common interest around the globe. The language they propose to use, whether Washington, Tokio, Buenos Aires, Stockholm, or Prague does the broadcasting, is this same Basic English now beginning to win its way. There is no other promising language in sight. Great literature is being put into Basic for all nations, including the greatest book of all, the Bible.

Basic English is by no means a final language, but is thought by many to be a sure foundation on which to build. Mr. Ogden has chosen 850 words which he states can be made to do the work of twenty thousand words. The English thus learned and put into practise sounds like normal English to anyone who hears or reads it. It is clear, clean English, a simpler form of English than is commonly used in books, but you can say anything however important with the help of these 850 words, together with four or five simple rules.

Basic English is now studied and used by groups of pioneers in Japan, Iceland, and Czechoslovakia. It would seem that there is little need of argument in regard to the need of Basic English as the language for all countries, as it has the widest distribution of any language and there still are great possibilities of expansion. I believe it has been quoted that two hundred million people now have English as their everyday language, another three hundred million are under English rule. When taken into consideration that about four hundred million or more people on the earth desire to speak English, it would not seem necessary for much argument in regard to accepting English as the basic language of the world.

Mr. Ogden has issued a series of books on different phases of Basic English, a list of which can be obtained by writing the Orthological Institute,

10 King's Parade, Cambridge, England. I found the A B C of Basic English extremely helpful to me in understanding the great work which is being done by these educators.

I have here a letter from an evening-school teacher in Copenhagen, Denmark, Mrs. Kamma Taylor, which reads as follows:

DEAR MR. OGDEN:

For quite some time I have been wanting to write to you and introduce myself as a teacher of Basic English, as I thought it might interest you to hear how the studies are progressing.

I am a Dane by birth and a Britisher by marriage, 38 years old and employed at the Council Schools of Copenhagen; I have spent four years in U. S. America, working as a bookkeeper and stenographer, have made several long visits to England and spoken and written the English language for a period of twelve years.

Well, last September I suddenly discovered your books and decided to see what they were about, as during the six winter months, I teach English to young girls and boys, who attend the free evening classes at the Council Schools of Copenhagen, two or three evenings a week.

The inspector of the English classes happens to be a teacher at the very school, where I am working in the day time—and one day I found him reading "The A B C of Basic English." He seemed very interested and asked me, how I would like to take over a class and try your system. He gave me two hours in which to think it over. I had already a very fine class of old pupils to start with on October 1—but this was too thrilling—and I could not let this offer go, so my answer was *yes*, and I let the other class go to somebody else.

Of course it was clear to me, that this was to be an attempt, which, if it turned out to be a success might mean a rearranging of the teaching of English in these evening classes, and that if it was a failure, it would simply be terrible for me!!! I know now that we shall have a very fine result, and that is why I am writing to you. I hope the length of the letter will not bore you, it is not easy to make it short—but you may skip the uninteresting bits.

In the beginning of October I made the start with a class of twenty-two boys and girls between 17 and 25 years of age; they have all voluntarily agreed to try this new way of learning English.

Well, we started, without textbooks of any kind, and have by now learned 450 words and all of the elementary grammar quite well. It has meant a tremendous lot of homework and planning for me—but with a typewriter and an English husband and a great enthusiasm for the job—the work is going strong.

I have followed your instructions of putting the words into groups in an order in which they come naturally to the mind, and I have managed to get all the words into groups! In regard to the number of new words which we are able to learn and digest, I think you are little too optimistic but only a little, our average is only between twenty and twenty-five. We are not able to take new words every single time, but have to rest our brains once in a while and repeat what we have learned so far.

To each word group my husband (who is greatly interested in the work) makes up some little story, containing all of these particular words, and thus we get reading material, which all has to be typed in as many copies as needed.

Every lesson lasts one hour and 40 minutes; and the last half hour is used for these Danish-English exercises.

The next thing to get started with is conversation, and I intend practising it a lot in the time from January to the end of March, when the course finishes.

About two weeks ago the inspector of the English classes visited our class and was indeed very satisfied with the result and declared that none of the other classes of beginners were by any means so far advanced; both the pronunciation, the grammar,

and the supply of words were very good, he said. He had to get a special permission from the Board of Education to make this attempt in Basic English, and he has written a few articles in a school paper and also in one of our daily papers about Basic English, so naturally he will be very pleased if the class is a success.

As far as I know this is the only and first attempt in Denmark, with the exception of a private course in languages, whose advertisement I saw in the paper a little while back. I am afraid we shall have to meet a storm of criticism, but that will not alter the fact, that the result will be a good one.

In conclusion I would like to express my appreciation of and regard for your system; it certainly is fine and just the thing for grown-up people, who quickly want to be able to make themselves understood and to understand the English language.

Sincerely yours,

KAMMA TAYLOR

LYNGBYVEJ 70, COPENHAGEN STR.

At a seminar course in Supervision of Instruction in Adult Alien Education, to be given by me under the auspices of the Division of University Extension of the Massachusetts Department of Education at Boston Teachers College this summer, I am planning to experiment with a group of experienced supervisors in preparing them to know the process of teaching Basic English for trial experiments in Massachusetts during the second year 1933-34.

CATCHING UP WITH LITERACY

WILLIAM S. GRAY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

When the 1930 census returns were reported, general satisfaction was expressed with the progress which had been made during the last decade toward the elimination of illiteracy. The reduction in the percentage of illiteracy from 6 to 4.3 indicated that the efforts of adult education workers had been very successful.

Gratifying as this progress was, an analysis of the situation reveals various causes for dissatisfaction. Among them are the liberal definition of literacy by the census department, the inaccurate reports often made to census takers by those scarcely able to read; the surprisingly low rank of the United States among other civilized nations with respect to literacy; the actual inability of about 20 percent of our population to read a newspaper or to write a letter; and the failure of millions who have attained literacy to utilize reading to any significant extent in increasing their personal and social efficiency.

The foregoing comments suggest three definite levels at which the problem of literacy must be attacked; the first includes those who have not attained technical literacy; the second includes those who have learned to engage in the very simplest reading and writing activities but have not attained functioning literacy; and the third includes those who have attained functioning literacy but require further guidance in applying reading in enriching life and in increasing their personal and civic efficiency.

Two methods have been employed in the past in efforts to reduce illiteracy. One has been characterized as the pioneer method, accompanied by spectacu-

lar campaigns. The other has been defined as the professional educational procedure. Both of these methods must still be employed if illiteracy is to be greatly reduced during the next few years. Professional educators should supplement their efforts in the classroom with vigorous campaigns to educate the public and to enlist the cooperation of those of little or no previous education.

In teaching those who are illiterate, major emphasis should be given to types of instruction that will provide a broader understanding of practical everyday problems, that will increase their personal and social efficiency, and that will stimulate new interests and aspirations. In addition, a sufficient amount of instruction should be given in the language arts to determine which adults have the capacity and inclination to learn to read and write effectively. Scientific studies show clearly that a considerable proportion of those who have remained illiterate thus far cannot learn with sufficient ease and rapidity to justify the expenditure of the necessary time and effort to teach them to read and write. One of the major purposes of early instruction is to determine the kind of training for which individuals are best adapted. Those who show that they can learn to read and write readily should be given appropriate training until they have attained functioning literacy. Those who learn to read only with great difficulty should devote most of their time to types of training that increase understanding and provide enrichment.

The second major obligation in eliminating illiteracy consists in promoting functioning literacy on the part of those who have demonstrated that they can learn to read and write with reasonable ease. Experience teaches that the necessary training should be carefully organized and skilfully presented. Other things being equal, it is advisable to concentrate effort during this period on a single goal, namely, functioning literacy.

The final problem is to provide the necessary guidance in applying reading to the chief fields of practical interest today, namely, current events, health, social problems and civic obligations, the simple scientific facts that underlie an understanding of modern life, vocational information, and recreation. Before such help can be provided most effectively, it will be necessary for appropriate materials to be prepared at a sufficient level of simplicity that they can be read easily by adults of limited education.

If the next decade witnesses satisfactory progress toward the elimination of illiteracy, adult educators must supplement the scientific study of their problems with successful salesmanship among the public and effective persuasion among illiterates.

ART TRAINING IN PREPARATION FOR ADULT LEISURE

ELIZABETH WELLS ROBERTSON, DISTRICT SUPERVISOR OF ART, PUBLIC
SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

During the war I fought the battle of Occupational Therapy in the Medical Department of the United States Army. I also served with the Invalided Soldiers Commission of Montreal. Occupations as a cure intrigued me not

only for what they could do for the doctors but because thru occupations, injured, shocked, discouraged, and disheartened men not only became interested in new avenues of work both as vocations and avocations, but they became once more interested in life.

In the improvised hospital workroom in the chapel of McGill University in Montreal, men in all stages of nervous disorders due to shell shock from real concussion of exploded bombs and from being buried alive, and other shocking experiences, worked at wood carving and painting. One huge Welshman watched me mix colors for some article he had made. The simple primary colors flowed into gorgeous hues and tints much to his amazement and delight.

"Will you please set down on paper what you did there so that I can tell the missus and the children just how you did it when I go back to the farm? We get our colors one at a time in cans. You have made the sunset."

Thousands of men and women will go back to work just as soon as the wheels of the machine begin to turn again and the smoke belches forth once more from the factory chimneys. They will *not* go back just as they did before, however, because their work days will be shorter and there will be fewer days in their work week. People have been liberated by the machine so that they may now have time to think of more than just staying alive. Leisure has come that could hardly be dreamed of a few years ago. This leisure has brought to educators the enormity of the problem of finding satisfactory and worthwhile occupations for adults as well as children. Indeed at no time has the responsibility for providing for the enrichment for adult life been as great as now. How are we going to enrich the lives of those who are already educated but who cannot find avenues of expression in their vocations? The teaching profession must provide plans for wise use of leisure or avocational efficiency just as it has been providing for vocational efficiency. Adults must be given opportunities to express their feelings and their talents not for money but for the sheer happiness that comes from creating something from nothing and the great satisfaction that comes from work well done. When men and women make things with their hands for their homes, there will be better communities and happier people. Right here I want to say a word to the unmarried woman who wants a home. Every little girl wants a doll house and so it is natural for every woman to want a home whether she is married or single. Build your own home and even if it is one of the new standard houses we hear about in the report on housing you can make the things that go into it and your personality will make your house different from every other house. I have had the satisfaction of building a house and found that almost anything a man can do a woman can do if she makes up her mind to do it. I found that the curtains can be woven, the furniture painted and covered, the rugs hooked, all in that margin of time that is usually wasted. It is the way that leisure is used that is important.

Keep creative art in the schools and the adults will go along with them. Creative art must be emphasized not only for the pleasure which the child

has in it, but for the preparation it gives for avocational efficiency when he is grown up. The regular school life of the child will stimulate the enrichment of adult life because the avocations started in youth are usually those that carry over into adult life. We enjoy doing the things that we know how to do well. The regular school program in creative art offers abundant opportunities and stimulates desires to create.

Our universities and colleges for the most part offer only art classes which bear upon so-called art appreciation. By art appreciation is meant the study of History of Art from the beginning of civilization to the present day. This affords fine cultural reading of course, but people today want more than that from art courses. Club women want to know how to create and there are art classes in our museums for women who have never studied art. The Business Men's Art Clubs show how necessary it is for the tired business man to express himself in painting. They want something more practical than art history. They want the joy of making beautiful things that is the birthright of us all. We are all artists. Some of us have more talents than others but we all have the inherent love for the beautiful and with some of us the desire for it is so strong that we must have an outlet for that expression of ourselves.

The importance of education for leisure is one of the most vital facts which educators must face squarely now. This is the machine age and unless the machine is abolished the people of today must learn to live with it. It is the machine age into which we have all been placed and whether we like technology or loathe it we must balance it and progress with it.

There was a time when people found satisfaction for their talents in their work. Now they must find a place to use skills, tastes and talents in leisure. Thus education must provide for avocational training. A new day demands a new education. The machine has brought the new day. Has the new education kept pace?

We have been forced to realize recently just how the machine has replaced man power. The machine was intended for the betterment of man. It was intended to put man on a pedestal. Now the machine is on a pedestal and man is underneath. It was not until the substitution of the machine for man became so overwhelming in its force that the government began to study the matter seriously.

The Report of the Hoover Research Committee on Social Trends sets forth that man's problem today is to catch up with the machine. Many of the ills of the country are attributed by the report to a "cultural lag" or the failures of changes in economic life, education, government, and religion to move forward at the same rate as mechanical progress. America must bridge the gap between material advance and social progress. It warns against the prolongation of a policy of drift.

I have been asked to make a contribution to this program because I have found a way out, and for the past few years I have been trying to show other women how to use the margin of time advantageously by means of an old folk art that is purely American, the art of quilt making. I have given

lectures to women's clubs, I have talked over the radio, and I have helped organize quilt clubs among women on farms; in the suburbs of the city, and on the south side of Chicago fifteen quilt clubs resulted.

Our first American women made quilts because they needed extra warmth. They had no materials with which to make new bed coverings and so they saved all the bits of old materials and combined them with other bits into our first American pieced quilt—the crazy quilt. There was no design, no color harmony—merely a quick way to get a warm bed covering. But the inherent love of the beautiful in the colonial women was so real that pattern soon evolved and many delightful quilts resulted. Some were pieced and some were applique.

Today there is just as great a need for these quilts as there was in the early days. We need them for warmth. We need them as a means of using up bits of materials and even more than before we need them as a means of expressing ourselves. We need them for our own Occupational Therapy to keep our minds from our difficulties and to make an intelligent use of leisure.

My contention is that the quilts of today should have the spirit of the old ones, but they must fit the needs and color schemes of today. The traditional designs are fine for historical examples but our modern decorative schemes call for larger spaces, freer designs, and finer color. All the training that goes into the making of a painting goes into the making of a well-designed bed covering. The recognition of fine art principles in the making of articles for use occurred in Europe long before it did in America. But now with more leisure and a finer culture the general public is demanding a fine design. However, even now, too many women are making hooked rugs from poor designs. They are putting too many hours of work on insignificant quilt patterns. One reason for this is that they lack education. They fear to express themselves. They have been inhibited too long. Let every child study some sort of art and when he grows up he will be able to discriminate. Begin now with the adult wherever he or she can be reached. Buying judgment and discrimination will result as well as fine applied art.

From a young woman in a small town in central Illinois eight miles from a railroad, came this note: "Eight of us young women here decided to spend our time at something more worthwhile than playing cards, so we decided to start a little quilt club. We exchange pieces of material and have an awfully good time, always feeling when we go home that our time has been well spent."

From Ohio: "I hurried my wash so that I could hear your talk on the radio. Quilts and quilting are my hobbies. I am not in the best of health as I have low blood pressure and asthma, but let me have a box of scraps and I am as happy as a child." From a lonesome soul in Illinois came this note: "I am asking for information, for collecting quilt patterns and blocks are my hobby. I have seven blocks and thirty pieced block samples. I heard in your talk about a lady who has some patterns to spare. I wrote her and now we have been writing and exchanging blocks, books, and patterns ever since.

I have four friends I made that way thru your quilt talks on the radio." From northern Indiana: "I am a young quilt lover. I enjoy your help so much I want to hear all of your talks because they are so different and what you say about color and design is so different."

This then is one specific adventure into the realms of art in the new education for leisure. It is only one expression of the many social inventions. Think of the many phases of art in the new education.

ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE THRU ART

LORADO TAFT, INSTRUCTOR AND LECTURER, CHICAGO ART INSTITUTE,
CHICAGO, ILL.

Someone has well said that "success lies in doing the best that one can the thing that one can do best." It is a modern version of the parable of the talents. The implication of the parable is that we are responsible for what we possess and for nothing more. No one is going to hold us to account for the astonishing, enviable gifts of other men. But I glean that we are very seriously accountable for our own. With most of us these are ample to keep us busy thru a long and active life. Most of us have interests or can cultivate interests, which will make this pilgrimage a fascinating adventure.

It has been said that the greatest accomplishment possible in life is the making of a personality. Whose personality? Why, our own, of course. I once heard a speaker observe that the trouble with all of these beneficial movements, adult education included, was that every one of us was trying to improve other people. Why not turn in and try to improve ourselves? Here is our first responsibility. In any case let's give up the idea of trying to reform character, our own or anybody else's.

During an enforced leisure last summer my wife read to me, among other things, Galsworthy's *Forsyte Saga*. The unfolding of the various characters of that average family was a splendid work of art and the effects of this pleasurable prescription were soon evident in my restored health. I was just thinking that if every one of us is equally good material for a novel it is because of the infinite variety of our individualities which in spite of the standardizing processes of modern education have remained *individual*; and, further, because each one of us is engaged in "working out the pattern which Nature has woven into us." The adventure comes from the fact that we ourselves do not know the sequel. The unfolding of the design we can only guess at. Like the weavers of the Gobelin's tapestries we work on the other side, out of sight of the finished product. So our fabric is full of surprises, yet is it bound to be consistent because it is a personal expression with its roots deep within one's self.

I have recently read the statement that "a man cannot grow to his height without self-knowledge." Cultivating the tastes is a progressive revelation of one's own powers.

I loved the quotation from Emerson in the current number of the *Journal of Adult Education*:

"Each man has his own vocation. The talent is the call. There is one direction in which all space is open to him. He has faculties silently inviting him thither to endless exertion."

It's like learning to ride a bicycle—if you know what I mean—or driving an auto, or speaking in public. The achievement is such fun that it goes to one's head. I remember that I could not believe my ears when I began to make myself understood in a foreign language. How could they understand when I did not myself? It was a triumphal progress, with enough droll mishaps interpolated to make it plausible.

I was interested in Dean Martin's advice to the young regarding education, where he tells them to be serious, but not too blame serious. Many pursue knowledge with such grim determination that they press all the juice and flavor out of it. I have been contrasting in my mind two commencements which I have recently attended. In the one many of the graduates were so wan and pale that they seemed utterly worn out. The cost had apparently been too great. The certificates were mechanically handed them and stolidly received. Not a courtesy, not a smile. At another college, commencement was a gala day. There were merry and even now and then mischievous glances at the young president as the candidates advanced on willing feet. The amenities were gracefully recognized. The "joyous adventure of learning" was a reality.

President Butler in a recent commencement address quotes Matthew Arnold's definition of culture as "knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world." The wise doctor continues: "He set a standard which only those who climb to the mountain tops of the mind can possibly reach. The vast majority of men pass thru life equipped with modest intellectual furniture and with eyes fixed on the ground immediately in front of the spot where their feet happen to be. The best that has been thought and said in the world does not concern them, nor have they even suspicion, much less knowledge, of its existence. So it is that the life of man involves stupendous, literally incalculable waste in respect to all those imponderables that are the only things which, in the long run, really matter."

Thruout the ages there have been men who delighted in whittling, in drawing and painting. They decorated their bodies, their homes, and their shrines. Now and then one of these craftsmen had a vision of something more wonderful or more beautiful than anything he had known before—an ideal which he felt must be preserved and shared with others. He may have glimpsed the mystery of the "burning bush" or dreamed of "angels ascending and descending." Perhaps an inexplicable joy has thrilled him; perhaps an overpowering awe. In any case it is something vastly important to him; something which compels him to make in enduring material a record of his experience. Studying these emotional expressions of other days, one is constantly impressed by their earnestness, their naively passionate appeal. Along with the prophets of Israel and the world's real poets, these nameless toilers of the centuries came closest, it seems to me, to a fulfillment of

Nietzsche's high ideal, "Life means for us constantly to transform into light and flame all that we are or meet with."

We recognize that we come out of mystery and that we depart into mystery; we have no notion what it is all about. The whole game would be a ghastly farce were it not for the assurance felt by most of us that we are making progress. Progress—in what direction? To me the most obvious token is in these records of the ages; the appreciable gain in the world's spiritual wealth. Thru poetry and painting and sculpture, life begins to explain itself. The thing most precious, the highest ideal, man has always embodied in the form of art and transmitted with his love to those coming after. Hence it is that little lands which all together would not fill one of our states, countries like Greece or Palestine, loom large in the past. They have bequeathed to us their treasures, while other enormous territories are forgotten because they did nothing for us. Yes, these little countries created, and we have "entered into their labors."

Aside from their intrinsic worth these precious things have another value for us, a message particularly needed in America; they help us to realize the infinite sequence of life. As a nation we have little accumulated wisdom and slight appreciation of the gifts of the ages. Our life is casual, without background. Our homes seem to be on casters, like our furniture—ever moving, ever changing. Our recreations are hectic—at forty or fifty miles an hour. Our music is jazz; our drama the movie; our literature the strident daily. To the other arts we are practically immune. If only we could pause long enough to read the message of the centuries! If our people would but listen to the invitation: "The eternal court is open unto you with its society, wide as the world, multitudinous as its days, the chosen and the mighty of every time and place." What a companionship is offered us! Here is my oft-repeated confession of faith. I hold that as intelligent people we have a right to (1) all of the beauty around us, the beauty of nature which most of us never perceive; (2) all of the inheritance of the past, of which Americans are particularly unconscious; and (3) to the talent which springs up perennially, but which America's rushing life is wont to extinguish before it takes root.

There are ten thousand ways to study art, and to appreciate art there are at least ten million, suited to every eye and every perception. Let us consider just two out of this multitude. The first is actually making art, or trying to. I agree with your educators who urge that the schools are not the places to make artists any more than to make dentists, but I feel that it is a sacred duty of the schools to help every pupil to appreciate art and music and incidentally to discover and to encourage unusual talent. It so happens, however, that in most cases there is no means of learning quite so fruitful as participation. Says Dr. McAndrew, "The English teacher should not be trying to graduate Shakespeares but enjoyers of Shakespeare," and he quotes aptly Dr. S. Weir Mitchell who used to observe that "one of the quickest ways to reach appreciation of a master is to try production in his line long enough to realize that he is a genius and you are not." Dr. Mc-

Andrew continues, telling of the protest of an eminent art director of 1891 who reproved him for letting his youngsters illustrate their compositions. "It's very bad," he said, "it familiarizes them with incorrect forms."

"Why not be logical," asked the great teacher, "and forbid the baby to creep until he has a correct form of walking, or to speak until he has mastered the dictionary?"

In my little booklet, *The Appreciation of Sculpture*, I find these lines: "The best way to learn to appreciate sculpture is not to read about it, but to try to do it." It is worth the effort. You may find that you have a knack for modeling, and you have opened up a whole world of joyous adventure. More likely you will promptly report that you "can't do a thing with it," but even then you will have learned something—how difficult it is, and much more!

I wish to describe in a few words my idea of a museum of art which is adaptable to every school and university. So completely "sold" am I to my "dream museum," and so doubtful that ever I shall see it realized in this life, that I have begun in my studio a miniature model of it. On a table about eight by fifteen feet in size, we have laid out a tiny world of architecture and sculpture. Thru the rugged Lion Gate of Mycenae and a grove of archaic Apollos you view the Parthenon front. The "Hera" of Delos, a turned newel post, stands in dramatic contrast to the east pediment of that glorious building. The floor indicates that only one hundred and fifty years separate them. In parallel aisles are ranged the achievements of various lands. Here is Egypt with its incredibly long history. It must be syncopated but notice this: the Lion Gate of Greece was carved about 1350 B. C. Once inside it you turn your head to the left and yonder in the Egyptian aisle you see the delicate, exquisite face of Nofratete, the lovely wife of Iknahton, the poet king of Egypt, the first monotheistic ruler of whom we have record. Her son-in-law, King Tutankahmin, died in 1350 B. C.

Parallel with the Egyptian procession is the equally long array of Mesopotamia. Like an army with banners do we meet the successive civilizations of Chaldea, Babylonia, Assyria, and Persia. Transepts cutting across the aisles mark the centuries and the milleniums, permitting one to note at any significant date what was going on in neighboring lands.

Return with me for a moment to Greece. We find the majesty of the fifth century B. C. gradually giving way to the grace and the pathos of a new era. The golden art of Praxiteles and the tragic power of Scopas are recognized; then we stand where Alexander's triumphant hosts have swept across a stage now fitly crowned by the Niké of Samothrace. For a considerable distance the sculpture of Greece will fill almost the entire width of the building, even as Hellenistic art filled the earth. In its current, however, we find a series of Etruscan carvings. This strange craftsmanship is destined presently to expand and, united with the Greek tradition, to flood the world of Roman conquest. Writing Laocoon and the dramas of Pergamon lead in their turn to the even more magnificent art of a new world empire.

It was only last week I heard Jane Addams say that, to her mind, the difference between an educated and an uneducated person is that the former has a "background." Doesn't that sum it up? Maurice Barres speaks of "a literature having the feeling of a greater world and of countries spread over the face of the globe." This is what my museum aims to give—"a feeling of a greater world" and the spiritual expression of the "countries spread over the face of the globe." The exhibits may be plaster casts or paper silhouettes, Medici prints and photographs, or only mental images, but let them be arranged in orderly sequence and so placed that the relationships of the different nations and periods are evident.

I do not need to tell you that the children's minds never reach saturation as long as they are interested. They absorb like a sponge and cry for more. I believe that history can be made fascinating to youth if it is illustrated by the significant products of the centuries and if its notable actors are made real by vivid portraiture.

Dr. Suzzallo has beautifully expressed the relation of art to history:

In all of human history, art has occupied a large place. In every civilization, in every human culture, everywhere upon the earth, from primitive times until now, the artistic technic has been man's finest and most influential method of crystallizing and expressing his appraisals of the worth of what he finds in his life. What he has esteemed highly he has enshrined in a temple or a palace; what he has revered deeply he has organized in ritual, ceremony, or good manners; what he has wished to glorify he has painted or put in song; what he has treasured for use in war or industry he has decorated with the best designs of his imagination.

The arts, all of them, fine and less fine, reveal the working values of their creators and appreciators in every time and place where they are found. They are the appraising emotional reactions of mankind on the things and events, ideas and ideals, saints and heroes, that touch man's life with vital significance. They reveal human aspirations for a better, a more enriched life, one less fearful, less monotonous, less ugly, more stable, more just, more gracious.

To create an art object or expression is to make a personal revelation of one's soul when aspiring to its best. A national or group art is a folk confession of what it thinks and feels about life, when separating the higher from the lower, the best from the worst.

Here is a great and enviable role for the enthusiastic teacher, but he can only point the way. It is the gold which the student digs for himself which is precious to him. Hence my faith in methods and collections which invite. You remember the words of the sage John Cotton Dana, "Education is primarily a subjective process; no teachers are so competent to teach us as we are to teach ourselves." ("Hear, hear," cry the children.)

If "education is the process by which one enters into the race mind," what a privilege to meet the "race mind" at its highest. Then indeed do we know "the best that has been thought and said."

In a sermon by a friend of mine, a southern pastor, whose name, oddly enough, is John Knox, I find these vibrant words:

Let those who know not Beauty argue whether living has significance or not; they who sometimes see her may be silent. They cannot tell what they know; others would not understand if they did. They have been admitted to "the secret place of the tabernacle of the Most High."

Here only pure and abounding joy can be found, whether one be the creator of a beautiful thing or the person, equally gifted, who loves it. Only "a thing of beauty is a joy forever." He who has had even one beautiful experience can never be completely desolate again. The really poor, whether they are peasants or princes, are those who have in their souls no secret room where Beauty comes sometimes to visit them. They are most rich whose lives approximate a succession of beautiful moments.

ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE THRU MUSIC

WILLEM VAN DE WALL, STATE DEPARTMENT OF WELFARE, HARRISBURG, PA.

Some of the particular problems of the moment with which the adult has to wrestle are concerned with how he can keep physically, mentally, and culturally virile and capable, despite the increased burdens of life. One of the results of this overburdening is the physical, mental or social breakdown now so common. Many of these cases could have been prevented had the victims learned how to achieve a more efficient use and control of mental powers in the development of their own lives. We find many people who have matured physically, but not emotionally, and altho some of them may have even attained prominence in the intellectual world, they nevertheless cannot settle some of their emotional problems on a higher than infantile level, for the simple reason that they never learned how to face, understand, use, and control their emotional life as a source of creative power and constructive beauty. Somehow in their education there was a failure to recognize and develop their possibilities along those lines. Thus it happens that among the emotionally frustrated we find many individuals with undeveloped artistic abilities. The practise of the fine arts affords one way of learning how to deal with life as a problem of emotional adjustment.

We find also among adult people, the inarticulate, the wondering, and the dissatisfied, who simply drift along without a goal of any kind. Some of these made a good start, but somehow gave up; others blame untoward circumstances for their not getting anywhere.

It is a time when countless men and women are called on to start all over again in one or another particular way. To have to start all over again—what courage is needed to throw one's self with faith, initiative, and force into the herculean task! To succeed there must be a continuous control of the self. This may be accomplished thru sheer will-power, but frequently environmental support, inspiration, and stimulation are necessary. And here it is that for the artistically sensitive the arts come to their spiritual support, and for the musically inclined this help comes in the form of sound.

The variety of the responses to music and interests in music calls for a more diversified utilization of the art as a pedagogical tool in both juvenile and adult education. We have, in the past, too exclusively catered to only one aspect of the various possible responses to music, namely, the aesthetic. There is more to the function of music than the giving of aesthetic satisfaction, however important and edifying in itself that may be.

But not all people whose lives could be enriched by music are equipped to appreciate and benefit from its aesthetic qualities. To many a person music is purely a physio-motor experience of pleasing sensory qualities, and it should

be given to them for all it is worth as such, in other words, as a "kick." And the older these persons may be, the greater is its value when causing a re-activation of the physical processes.

The dynamic influence of music on the physique is not limited to that of an excitant only. Slow musical rhythms may function as brakes on physiomotor action and further muscular relaxation. This is frequently a much needed reaction of therapeutic value.

Closely connected with the physical influence of music is its effect on the emotional life. The sensation of well-being following the listening to or playing of music has definite physical causes and components. Adults more frequently than youths stand in need of such sensations.

In the mental influence of music we find perhaps its richest contribution to the emotional need of the adult. It is only a very small part of humanity that, like the critic, listens to music objectively, and performs it like the artist for objective aesthetic reasons. For the majority of music lovers and amateur singers and players, music is primarily a means of subjective emotional experience and expression. Its hearing causes in some people's minds a veritable explosion of phantastic thoughts, and, as they put it, "wonderful feelings" are experienced; something indescribably vague, but nevertheless overwhelming and intensely satisfying. That is frequently just what many need and should have amidst the worries of life—a mental vacation and relief from intellectual concentration on an endless chain of vexing and insoluble problems. If certain adults could only be gotten away in time from having the nose continually to the grindstone, how much more bearable would life become to them, how much more agreeable they would be in their relations with others, how much more efficient would they be in their work, and how much longer would their powers last.

Very frequently mental breakdowns are caused by a too one-sided way of thinking and living. Adding music to one's interests in adult life may be a factor in preserving the balance and integration of the personality.

Music may act as an isolator from disagreeable and preoccupying thoughts and make possible a freer and broader thinking. To be able to react thus to a symphony may, in some cases, be a richer and more fruitful experience than the mere mechanical tracking of its pattern of construction and instrumentation.

Some people, depending on the individual nature and needs, derive a great deal of direct emotional help from romanticizing, letting their fancy rove where it will. The number of adults emotionally starving is great. The depression has added many more to those who, thru changes in their social status, have been cut off and have themselves cut loose from the company of those they cherished, from the cultural joys which inspired them, from the artistic creative and interpretative work which they used to do. Of the professional and amateur musicians, for whom music-making meant emotional living, expression, communication, meant giving the best they had to give, we find now by the dozens pianists without instruments, violinists having

pawned and lost their violins, singers without music to sing from and too poor to secure a piano or accompanist.

Again, anyone engaged in community work knows of another type of emotionally isolated souls, some of whom never had a family and others who at some time cared for as many as ten. There are people who since their parents died have never had a home. There are also people whose daily work keeps them in a basement and who are virtually without social connection or even talking acquaintances, who retire in the evening with a sandwich to a hall bedroom. Some of these folks have grown into peculiar persons. How could it be otherwise? They tend to become inarticulate, emotionally uncommunicative, to become old and ugly, incapable of inspiring or attracting any form of friendship or love attachment.

Still, we know that in these emotionally isolated ones burns a yearning for sympathy, sociability, friendship, and love. But they have lost the way, and frequently get confused and unintelligible.

It is amazing to note how a little personal attention, a semblance of romance in the form of a party or a picnic, may reinspire these souls, energize them, and give them a new attitude and start in life and work. Music is for many of them, as they hear it in the parks or thru the radio, frequently the only stimulus of inner elation, an experience so tender and caressing that it means to them, in symbolic, still concrete form, an experience of emotional satisfaction which life has denied to them thru the means of personal relationship; and the result is similar to that of any experience of satisfying emotion—a liberation of energy and a sense of peace and happiness. When the wear and tear of adult life cause the individual to lag in interests and to age in his attitudes, a new emotional stimulus and interest will often recharge, as it were, the vital battery, cause a rejuvenation in attitudes and function, and increase the person's usefulness and happiness to a considerable degree.

Many adults carry sometimes carefully hidden illusions from the days of youth which were never materialized. Among these is a desire to make music in some form. If that idea has persisted thru the years, it will be well worthwhile to investigate its dynamic origin and value. Again and again it has been found that assisting such persons of riper age in securing the right type of musical instruction, development, and expression resulted in an emotional liberation on a wholesome cultural plane and has given them a new objective of great inspirational and constructive influence.

The aesthetic and spiritual enrichment of life thru music does not need elucidation in this address—it is too well known. Naturally, if we can develop within a person an aesthetic interest in music as a subject of reflective study and of artistic practise, we open new channels thru which both inspiring and comforting experiences may come to him. In fact, we may help him thereby to change his focus of attention and satisfaction to something more apart from himself, independent of himself, and so we increase his possibilities for finding relief and strength in something greater, more perfect, than the self, which is often what man is seeking when he yields to art. From this can be explained the natural thirst of so many emotionally insecure, sometimes un-

stable people for aesthetic and artistic experiences. The listening to or making of music is, consciously or unconsciously, their means of stabilization and of reaching out for the control of their emotional urges by aesthetically conditioned modes of conduct.

Man has been called a "social animal." Sometimes he seeks isolation, but more frequently he needs emotional companionship of a congenial nature, to reach his own highest level of dealing with himself, with his work and with his fellowmen and to feel inwardly satisfied. Thousands of people go to concerts and operas seeking this emotional satisfaction, relaxation and inspiration thru music. One of the forms of enrichment of adult life thru music is found in the bringing together thru choruses and orchestras, groups of people on an emotionally and aesthetically inspiring basis, people some of whom would otherwise have no congenial fellowship.

What do we find in our work today in connection with the serious want suffered by untold numbers of adult men and women of musical inclination? We find a need of musical experiences, which will give them the sorely wanted zest to continue to believe in their own reason for existence and to "fight the good fight" to the end.

Many are the causes which contribute to this need. Of a few we have spoken; others we have not touched upon. Life is hard on the present adult generation and also on many a youth, now cut off not only from a bare livelihood and from the completion of his education, but also from the sources of cultural inspiration and strength. The paradox of it is, that now, when life demands new, quick, and effective adjustments, when there is a greater need for more education, relaxation, and inspiration than ever, everywhere budgets are being cut, causing teachers to be dismissed, classes stopped, courses abolished, concerts revoked, lopping off just so many sources of growth, inspiration, comfort, and relief; and in each case the fine arts and culture are condemned to atrophy.

In adjustment work with musical adults out of a job, with half a job, and with a job, but without emotional balance and peace, there is a dire need for assistance in the pursuit of music as a cultural and spiritual objective.

For many, today, occupation with music is the straw to which they are clinging, emotionally speaking, to preserve their morale, their personality, their integrity, their fighting spirit against demoralization. For others it means a direly wanted self-assertion in a constructive and socialized form. For still other adults, it means the liberation of energy for non-musical, economically constructive thinking, planning, and laboring. For all, this use of music implies, instead of a loss of morale and backsliding, the going forward again, with head up, in faith and hope.

AN ADVENTURE IN ADULT EDUCATION IN DAYTON

DON D. LONGNECKER, PRINCIPAL, FAIRVIEW HIGH SCHOOL, DAYTON, OHIO

A small group of teachers in the Fairview High School, Dayton, Ohio, after studying the Dewey and Kilpatrick philosophy of education, attempted, four years ago, to apply this philosophy in the enrichment of the lives of its adult patrons.

There was a definite feeling at that time (which has increased since) that the average adult: (1) did not properly evaluate the purposes of public education, (2) had certain prejudices and stereotypes making local self-government dangerous, (3) did not have an adequate medium thru which to express his own convictions about local affairs, (4) needed an opportunity to grow in his knowledge of parent problems, social problems, and economics, (5) lacked a foundation on which to build a creative interest to take care of an increasing amount of leisure time.

With these ideas as a background, we set out on an "adventure in community adult education." Using six Monday evenings during the winter months, we offered the first year eight courses with an enrolment of two hundred adults. This enrolment has gradually grown to more than one thousand adults, last year when the Brown Elementary, the Col. White Junior High, and the Fairview Senior High (in the same section of the city) combined in a program.

The general committee chose as their definition of adult education, "that organized type of education designed primarily for individuals beyond regular school age, for securing continual adjustment to changing social and economic conditions of contemporary life." It was the assumption of the committee that the schools form a natural community center and as such should participate in the life interests of all ages and class groups.

The general theme "Security" was adopted for last year's project. Educational, social, and economic security were special topics, each of which received treatment on different nights by competent speakers. The idea of security was also developed in the regular class periods in many of the courses.

The general plan of the school was to have two one-hour periods each evening. On alternate Monday evenings, an assembly for the entire enrolment was held in the school auditorium. Twenty-seven classes were offered, from which number any one person might choose two. Classes were organized with the informal adult education idea in mind: namely, that anyone might have the privilege at any time of injecting a question or making a comment; that the class period was so organized that the entire group might exchange ideas and grow together. No class had a teacher, but each class had a discussion leader. There was a conscious attempt to leave indoctrination out of the procedure. No course was offered which had direct vocational value.

Such courses as the following were all popular: The Baby Gets a Good Start, The Elementary-School Child, The Junior High-School Boy and Girl, The Senior High-School Boy and Girl, After High School—What?, Current Events, Conversation, English Usage, What to Read, Applied Art, Crafts, Salads and Desserts, Songology, Art Appreciation, Social Hygiene, Presentday Economic Problems, Social Planning, Dayton Citizenship, Travel, Religion in Everyday Life, Home Nursing, Dress Design, Contract Bridge, Homemaking, Interior Decorating, Amateur Photography, Dramatics.

Two months previous to the first session, discussion leaders were called together, the plan of the school was outlined and all those taking part were given a common background. In addition to the regular discussion leaders, practically every course used special leaders for special topics, with the result that more than seventy took some definite leadership in the school.

There was very little dropping in attendance during the course of the school. In fact, the school has become so popular that it has been definitely decided to conduct similar types of adult education groups in five different centers next winter.

Many have volunteered their services to help carry out the project on a citywide basis. The P. T. A.'s, League of Women Voters, Federated Clubs, and the Council of Social Agencies are just a few of the organizations lending the movement their support for 1934.

It is as yet too early to prophesy results. We note this, however—our community is less critical and more cooperative with the schools. The school is more of a community center.

Altho a mill-levy for school operation failed of passage last year at the election, this particular community gave it strong support.

One enthusiastic parent puts the value of the informal adult school this way: "Why can't my boy be taught these same things in the high school?"

We believe that we have more or less stumbled upon a means by which we can gradually change public opinion away from traditional "college preparatory" courses and in favor of courses at every level, that will educate toward adjustment of the individual to "changing problems of contemporary life," that will stimulate the latent creative abilities, and teach people to "do better the desirable things they are likely to do anyway."

Practically no expense was involved in our little project since the time of our seventy leaders was donated and the board of education graciously permitted us the use of the buildings.

We claim no originality in our adventure. We only claim success far beyond our hopes—a success which is carrying us rapidly into a citywide informal adult program.

GLIMPSES FROM THE FIELD

MAUDE E. AITON, DIRECTOR OF ADULT EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

The full-time adult school of the District of Columbia, known as the Americanization School, is directly under the board of education. An entire school building is used for adult educational work. Classes are open, day and night, for practically the entire year. There is a short vacation in June and September.

This is a school for the whole family. A nursery and kindergarten afford an opportunity to bring the youngest members and make possible demonstration to the parents the value of child care including health and education.

Field teachers carry on many classes in the homes and the Rotary Club furnishes bus transportation for entire home classes, including children, to the central school.

The organization of the school provides: (1) Graded classes of men and women seeking naturalization. Close contact is maintained with the Court and the Naturalization Bureau. (2) Graded classes for adults desiring to study the English language. (3) Graded classes for the underprivileged, both native and foreign-born who need primary work. (4) Many special classes are organized, such as budget luncheon class, mothers' sewing groups, current topics class, legislative study group, handcraft groups, garden club, practical law class, and general science class.

The age range (including the nursery) is from babyhood to men and women of advanced years. The average age varies from the late twenties to the early thirties. The educational range of students is from illiteracy to university men and women. The nationality range includes over fifty nationalities.

The Americanization School Association, an organization initiated by the students of the school, has functioned for more than eleven years. Its work is correlated with the school work and it affords many extracurriculum activities, such as library, orchestra, chorus, bulletin, recreational activities. It also carries on extensive aid and employment work.

GLIMPSES FROM THE FIELD

A. W. CASTLE, DIRECTOR, EXTENSION EDUCATION DIVISION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

Adult education in Pennsylvania, as in other states, has suffered from and profited by the exigencies and hysteria of the times. One city decides to save money regardless of ultimate costs, and overnight uproots and destroys its entire program of evening schools. Its neighbor girds itself to meet the social and industrial demands of technological unemployment and enforced leisure and courageously expands its evening school program.

Most communities of our commonwealth have soberly prorated among all school activities the retrenchment found to be necessary, preserving all of them to the best of their ability. Erie and Altoona short-sightedly have abruptly and completely wiped out their evening schools, serving thousands of deserving adults, in order that other activities might remain unhampered as largely as possible.

Ellwood City, not far from Erie, recognizing the urgent social and economic need for adult education, organizes a new and comprehensive evening school program topped by a standard evening high school, and throws wide open its school doors as its contribution to the solution of present problems. Other cities and boroughs follow.

Williamsport, already famous for its vocational retraining program, calculates costs and possible economies but plans a bigger and better program of adult education including a new standard evening high school.

Downingtown teachers point the way to other small communities by giving volunteer teaching service in evening schools as an emergency measure.

In Pennsylvania there is now being prosecuted under the leadership of Dr. James N. Rule, our State Superintendent of Public Instruction, a state study of educational problems. In this study, among one hundred committees now at work, extension education for adults, embracing school extension, university extension, and library extension, has won a place of equal standing with elementary education, secondary education, and higher education.

Thru the slow but effective leavening of our extension education for adults, illiteracy with all its social implications, the genuine assimilation of our foreign-born, vocational retraining, leisure-time occupation, crime and juvenile delinquency, prison education, parent education, the enrichment of rural life, home study, library service, social trends and social control—all are now, for the first time, getting the serious consideration long due them.

Extension education for adults will continue in Pennsylvania with relatively little specific loss and generally great gains. Our greatest present need is for definite and well-understood social objectives upon which there is general agreement. Obviously, we cannot arrive until we know exactly where we want to go and just as definitely why we want to go there.

The National Council of Education will soon recommend to the President of the United States the creation of a national commission on social-economic planning. This recommendation should have the support of everyone interested in adult education. No other single field of education has so much to gain from such a proposed intelligent weighing of our social and economic values and objectives, and of our educational outcomes and needs.

The educational implications of increasing leisure, greater vocational obsolescence, and the growing need for continuing readjustment of individuals to constantly changing conditions, point unmistakably to adult education as the most significant development of coming decades.

Continuing education for continuing readjustment has taken permanent root in Pennsylvania. No new movement nor infant institution has ever before, in our democracy, been called upon so suddenly to assume such tremendous responsibility. In our commonwealth and elsewhere, the challenge is ours to meet.

GLIMPSES FROM THE FIELD

KATHERINE M. KOHLER, DIRECTOR, EXTENSION DIVISION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

The paramount question in the Adult Education Department of the Minneapolis Public Schools at the present time is "How can we stretch the dollar still more to meet the ever-increasing demands for constructive leisure time activities?"

During the school year just completed, on a reduced budget, we have carried on a program in elementary, secondary, commercial, and homemaking education and in addition some special projects were initiated.

To gain an idea of how the evening schools were serving the unemployed, surveys were made in the evening commercial and in the evening high school in May 1933.

The most common reasons given by the unemployed for attending the commercial evening school were: "To better myself," 24 percent; "to acquire a business education" or "to learn typewriting or shorthand" or "keep up shorthand practise," 47 percent; "to help secure a position" or "gain a better position," 21 percent. Approximately 92 percent and perhaps more are coming for some reason pertaining to a job.

The evening high school presented a very different but an equally interesting picture. Approximately 34 percent answered that "cultural value" was the determining factor in attending; 35 percent were garnering credit toward graduation and 10 percent toward university entrance.

A large percentage of the students expressed an urgent desire for educational and vocational guidance. It was most encouraging to find that in both schools nearly 70 percent were planning to return to evening school next fall; 20 percent were undecided and 10 percent either had finished the course in which they were interested or had other reasons for not coming back.

Classes for women—During the past year the department discovered that there was great need to help housewives on reduced incomes and those on public relief to use their food allotments to the best advantage. Thru the cooperation of schools, neighborhood houses, and social workers, classes were opened. Some of the women needed help in making their budget allowance cover the total time allotment; all needed training in food marketing, in preparing inexpensive but nourishing dishes, in baking bread, and in planning balanced meals to suit the family needs which varied according to the number and age group in each family. To bring the cost within the weekly allowance for families on the relief rolls, grocery lists were procured from the relief agencies. The work done in these classes resulted in better and more satisfying meals, fewer periods of enforced fasting, and less friction in the homes.

Groups of women, anxious to find day work, were enrolled in laboratory classes in housework. This course included cleaning rooms and furnishings, removing stains, laundering, pressing and ironing, care of household metals and plumbing, and the care and use of household appliances. Supplementary to the general lessons, demonstrations were given in the care and use of electrical machines and appliances.

A number of young women, who had been trying vainly to find work, were encouraged to enter study groups for self-improvement. Since getting a job was the girls' paramount interest, a class in general housekeeping drew those who hoped to qualify for work, either by day or week, as maids or waitresses, or in catering. Practical laboratory lessons in cooking, serving, and general housework were given. This course also included lessons in the selection and care of clothing and in personal grooming. Incidentally, the teacher sought to instil the fact that careful grooming, cleanliness, and neatness are even more essential than smart wearing apparel. Had the teachers been able to finish the program by placing each pupil, the project would have been a complete success. Unfortunately not many employers were found waiting at the end of the course. A few of the girls secured jobs, but more

were disappointed. However, even the latter realize that their time was profitably spent, that when they do get work they will be better qualified to give satisfaction, and that the knowledge they have gained is useful in their own homes.

Thru the Minneapolis Urban League a group of Negroes, the majority unemployed, petitioned to have a class in janitorial housekeeping. The Adult Education Department provided a course covering the care of different kinds of floors and woodwork, and in correct methods of sweeping and dusting and cleaning. At the end of the course, the men expressed themselves as being well satisfied and as wanting further training along the same line.

The foregoing projects, carried out as they were mainly among American-born young people, do not reveal all the problems of extension work confronting the Minneapolis Adult Education Department. A selected picture of a complete adult education situation was obtained thru a survey of all adults (numbering 1861) within a specified district. The social and economic levels of this district were low in comparison with other school populations in Minneapolis and elsewhere. Over 55 percent were born in foreign countries and more than 15 percent were not as yet citizens of the United States. Previous education had been limited, few of them having gone beyond the elementary school. One out of every seven adults could neither read nor write English, and one out of every twenty could not read or write in any language. The parental responsibility of the mothers was not great in a majority of the cases, and these adults for the most part fell in the age groups where education is possible and desirable. In our enthusiasm for new projects in adult education, the old problems of illiteracy and of providing an elementary education for all the adult population must not be forgotten.

All about us in Minneapolis as elsewhere there is convincing proof of the importance of "carrying on" activities for the education of adults. Support for this program should be adequate, particularly in the present situation as is so well expressed by Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, when she says: "Outside the provision of actual funds for food and shelter, I would say that the opening up of new and diversified educational opportunities for adults is the most important movement for unemployment relief."

GLIMPSES FROM THE FIELD

CHARLES J. LUNAK, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
CHICAGO, ILL.

Adult education in Chicago is comprised of: (1) evening schools; (2) a regular day elementary adult school; (3) day English-to-foreign classes; (4) Americanization classes; (5) classes for the unemployed in shelters; (6) parent-education classes.

Owing to a decreased revenue, the appropriation for evening schools was cut in half. This necessitated the closing of sixteen opportunity high and elementary evening schools. This seems an enormous denial of opportunity, but by consolidating small schools, closing hopelessly small schools, and com-

binning classes, we feel that we have a better and a closer knit system which allows of better supervision and draws a much better student body without depriving anyone of the opportunity of securing an education in the evening.

The six evening high schools are accredited by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges. They contain high-school shop classes, elementary classes, classes in Americanization, and English-to-foreign.

The accredited schools have a term of thirty-six weeks, meeting the first four evenings of each week from 6:45 to 9:45, three hours each evening. A charge of \$5.00 returnable registration fee is made. This fee is returnable if the student has attended three-fourths of the time, and a refund of one-half the registration fee is made if the student uses tools, machinery, or equipment.

An investigation was made on the relation between nominal tuition charges, returnable registration fees, and free instruction and attendance. It was found that where no charge was made, the attendance averages 68 percent. When a nominal tuition fee was charged, the average attendance was 74 percent, and when a returnable registration fee was demanded, the average attendance was 78 percent. It is a question if students regularly employed should not be requested to pay the greater portion of the cost of instruction in the accredited classes.

We attempted this year to combine community center activities with the evening schools by giving to the community lectures, debates, dramatics, orchestra, band, vocal music, and forums. I am not yet ready to endorse this experiment, but we shall try it another year.

The accredited high schools had a membership of 24,963, with 978 in the classes below the high-school level. In addition, there are 5480 in Americanization classes, 467 in the shelters for the unemployed.

There seems to be little doubt about offering instruction in English-to-foreign and Americanization classes free of charge. After all, this directly benefits the community and state. It is a question too how long the tax-paying public is willing to assume the burden of educating self-supporting adults. Here in Chicago the tax-paying public has assumed the entire responsibility, only a small portion of the returnable registration fee going into the treasury of the board of education. Undoubtedly during the financial depression, with its long periods of unemployment, a number of worthy students who cannot pay the registration fee are deprived of the opportunity of attending. Even carfare is an element which enters into regularity of attendance. Our attendance on Monday and Tuesday is almost perfect; it drops off on Wednesday, and on Thursday it becomes low because by that time there is no money for carfare.

Chicago is divided by the river into three sections, a North Side, a South Side, and a West Side. Two accredited evening high schools are located in each section, so that they are conveniently located.

The following is a paragraph taken from the Strayer report:

The study of the evening high schools of Chicago leads to the conclusion that these schools are performing invaluable educational service. Chicago has set for all large cities in America an example of night high schools sufficient in number, conveniently located, and comparable with the day high schools in the type of work done. It is recommended that, in spite of the present emergency, the evening high-school program be continued.

I am in hopes, when financial conditions are improved, to open three technical high schools, one for each section of the city, and an additional high school on the South Side for the colored, which shall have accredited classes, elementary work, and vocational classes. Four years ago this school for the colored was open and in one room for elementary instruction there were eight grandmothers, four grandfathers, and four great-grandmothers. One wonders why people as old as these come, day after day, to trace laboriously with labor-stiffened fingers one letter after another, and just as laboriously pick out one word after another. The answer is the answer for the organization of the first schools. They come so that in the sunset of their lives they might learn to read the scriptures and secure comfort therefrom.

GLIMPSES FROM THE FIELD

MRS. KENNETH F. RICH, DIRECTOR, IMMIGRANTS' PROTECTIVE LEAGUE,
CHICAGO, ILL.

Citizenship has never been more needed by the foreign-born than now. The disabilities that face the alien have never been so great. First of all, in most states he cannot really become a part of the political life of the community by holding office, by serving on the jury, or by voting. A democratic government, however, is dependent upon the participation in it of those resident within its boundaries.

Most states limit the opportunities in many of the professions to those who are citizens. In certain parts of the country, for instance, an alien cannot become a physician, or a lawyer, or a nurse, or a public accountant.

In many other certain states aliens are not permitted to hold land, or certain other types of property. Land ownership, perhaps, may not descend to the child of an alien. Perhaps he is barred from mining claims. Perhaps he cannot procure a hunter's license, or even own a hunter's dog.

In many other states, social legislation has not extended to the alien. The non-citizen may be barred from the benefits of the Workmen's Compensation Act, or an old-age pension, or a blind person, or a mother's pension. If he is so unfortunate as to have become caught, with his neighbors born in the United States, in the present economic stringency, he is probably barred from work relief projects, employment on public works, or possibly even a relief budget.

From an immigration standpoint, he cannot bring his wife and children outside the quota unless they happen to have been born in the Western Hemisphere. He, of course, cannot travel on an American passport.

The position of the alien in the United States at present is critical in many of the relationships of his life. He cannot make an adjustment to it unless he becomes a citizen of this country.

At the very moment, however, when citizenship is demanded of the alien in all this range of his relationships, the path to naturalization has become more and more difficult. Mounting obstacles bar his way. Perhaps he simply cannot afford the expense of becoming naturalized—this bill of twenty dollars, or perhaps thirty-five dollars, to the government. The high cost of naturalization has defeated its own end and seems particularly unjust in view of the fact that there is so large a surplus in the naturalization fund, collected from the fees paid by the applicant. Perhaps he has forgotten the name of his boat and cannot verify the record of his arrival in the United States, which is now one of the first requirements to naturalization.

Perhaps he has made a trip abroad and has stayed a little longer than a year, in adjusting matters in the old country relating to property, the care of his parents, or other family obligations. Those prolonged visits may even indicate greater, rather than less desirability, among his qualifications for citizenship. More than a year of absence breaks his residence, however, and the five-year period required must begin all over again. Perhaps in renouncing allegiance to the foreign ruler he has named the wrong king, which has happened so often, since the sweeping changes in territory in Europe after the World War. The little amendment to the Naturalization Act relating to renunciation of allegiance was probably too limited in its provisions to embrace his dilemma.

Perhaps the applicant to naturalization has compunctions about taking the oath to bear arms, and so perhaps has been disqualified because of his religious beliefs, as was a certain Professor of Divinity at Yale University. Perhaps it is the color of his skin which makes him ineligible. If he is not "free white or of African nativity or descent," in other words, if his skin is yellow, not black, nor white, nor red, regardless of the great contribution he may be making in this country, he is barred from naturalization.

Another naturalization difficulty is the educational test. In order to become a citizen, one must "speak the English language," sign the petition "in his own handwriting," and be "attached to the principles of the Constitution." The so-called educational test for naturalization has not been enacted by Congress. In some naturalization districts, however, it is being enforced without legislation. The list of petitioners described by naturalization examiners as "found poor in their knowledge of English and form of government" has grown longer and longer and longer! Perhaps that is not true in Massachusetts, where so wonderful a system of enrolment of the foreign-born in adult classes is in operation under the able direction of Miss Mary Guyton. Other states also have adult education programs of which they may well be proud. Illinois has a permissive act and aspirations! Chicago has Miss Frances Wetmore's excellent department of adult day classes, but she needs ten times the appropriation made by the board of education!

The filing of any naturalization paper, whether declaration or petition, should be the signal for cooperative action between the local public-school system, and the United States naturalization service. Thru the visiting teacher function, there should be enrolment in some kind of class, of every

such applicant. In order that this object may be attained, there must be great elasticity of curriculums, and of management of classes, with special respect to the hours at which they are held, their location, the number required for attendance, and other regulations.

The argument for establishing an educational test for naturalization is always a plausible one. It is, however, an entirely unjust one, until public-school facilities for adults catch pace with such naturalization requirements. The educational opportunity for them, the country over, is far from equal and far from adequate. It seems, moreover, entirely unfair and unfortunate to raise bars to naturalization when so many legal disabilities face the alien. If the argument for an educational test is based on its relation to the voter, it should in all justice, apply to the citizen born in the United States, as well as the citizen by adoption. Some states are already experimenting with a general educational test for all voters.

Such obstacles to naturalization can partly be mitigated by administrative procedure. In many directions, however, they will require amendments to the naturalization law itself. Such a group as this might well adopt an active legislative program for naturalization which would include such items as: (1) the immediate reduction of naturalization fees, (2) permission for legalization of entry regardless of date of entry, (3) broader provisions regarding renunciation of allegiance, (4) elimination of the discriminations now existing in the naturalization law, as to sex, religion, and race, (5) prevention of an educational test until all parts of the United States have achieved equality and adequacy of educational opportunity for adults.

Woodrow Wilson, in speaking to an assembly of newly naturalized citizens, once said: "You have come to America not only to earn a living . . . but . . . to let me know that everywhere in the world there are men who will cross strange oceans, and go where a speech is spoken which is alien to them, if they can but satisfy their quest for what their spirits crave; knowing that whatever the speech, there is but one longing and utterance of the human heart, and that is for liberty and justice."

A group such as this, by opening the half shut doors to citizenship by naturalization, can make a direct and immediate contribution to the liberty and justice they believe is here.

GLIMPSES FROM THE FIELD

FRANCES WETMORE, SUPERVISOR OF ADULT EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
CHICAGO, ILL.

There is so much of interest and variety in the field of adult education that it would take many times three minutes to give even a brief survey of what is taking place in this field.

In Chicago we have the problem of illiteracy and the teaching of fundamentals of the language to the native-born white and colored, as well as the foreign-born. It is found that many of our native-born are unable to make a written application for relief to the Illinois Commission for Relief,

because of illiteracy. Thru this agency we hope to come in touch with a new group needing education and giving them a new opportunity. This department has functioned a sufficient number of years to have the satisfaction of watching the illiterate emerge from illiteracy thru the elementary level of education into high school.

We hold many classes for adults in the public-school buildings. In several instances, three generations from the same family attend the same public school.

We have classes meeting in settlements, office buildings, and shelters for the unemployed.

We have a number of groups meeting for the study of parental care. A carefully planned course of study on child care from infancy thru adolescence is conducted thruout the school year.

Many of our more advanced classes, including the parental care groups, are conducted largely as discussion groups.

The work which has developed most rapidly during the past year or two is the work in the shelters for the unemployed men and women. We have found, as have many others working with the unemployed groups, a cross section of society presenting various educational needs and interests.

After careful consultant with these groups, we have responded to their requests for English, mathematics, Spanish, radio making, salesmanship, economics.

We have found the effect of presenting a constructive piece of educational work in this time of enforced idleness, a great factor in keeping up the morale of these discouraged men. I believe the result has warranted all our efforts, even in the face of our crippled financial condition.

What next! Only a seer and a prophet can tell, but this I know—we must respond to the increasing and changing demands for education on the part of the adult.

We must accept this challenge, or we fail in one of our most vital and hopeful fields of educational work.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, July 3, 1933

Mary L. Guyton, president, called the meeting to order at 2 p. m. In the absence of the secretary, Caroline Whipple, of New York, chair appointed Mrs. M. D. Neufeld, of Chicago, as secretary pro tem. After a brief expression of appreciation to the committee for its work for the preceding year, and an announcement of the other meetings to follow in this department, she stated that in accordance with the provision of the bylaws the appointment of a committee on resolutions would be first order of business. Committee appointed as follows: A. W. Castle, Pennsylvania, Chairman; Charles Lunak, Illinois; Wil Lou Gray, South Carolina; J. O. Hornstein, New York.

The next order of business was the appointment of the nominating committee: Frances K. Wetmore, Chicago, Chairman; James A. Moyer, Director, University Extension, Massachusetts.

In the absence of Sydney B. Hall, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Richmond, Virginia, "The Report of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education" was presented by William G. Carr.

In the discussion which followed Mr. Castle of Pennsylvania asked to what extent the commission had considered the need of adult education in the school system, to which Dr. Carr answered that the commission had given this matter considerable thought and that it is anxious to get suggestions as to how it may proceed in this connection. Mr. Castle moved that Dr. Carr convey to the commission the request of this conference that the commission give its further consideration to the need of adult education activities in public education and the need of meeting present-day emergencies and exigencies and to make its recommendations accordingly. Motion seconded by Charles Lunak of Chicago. Motion carried. Report made by Dr. Carr received and filed.

A. H. MacCormick, Assistant Director of the Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, Washington, D. C., presented a paper on "Educating the Prisoner." In the discussion that followed Miss Guyton asked how the prison teacher compares with the teacher outside. To this question Mr. MacCormick answered that if the teacher's work is well supervised it is usually good, but that since wardens usually do not know what it takes to make a good teacher and that since prisoners who were salesmen or bankers, etc., must be given white-collar jobs, frequently the teaching is not adequate. Mr. MacCormick's paper was received and filed.

C. K. Ogden, Cambridge, England, who was to have presented a paper on "Basic English" was unable to be present. Miss Guyton told the Conference of some of the values of the new 850-word vocabulary proposed by Dr. Ogden, read a letter from a teacher in Denmark which was accompanied by a lecture she had given in which only words from this vocabulary were used, and announced that further information and literature on this subject may be secured by writing to S. Howard Evans, Room 371, 1 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y. Much discussion followed the presentation of this subject in which the difficulties as well as the advantages of the adoption of this new vocabulary were emphasized.

Dinner Meeting, 6:00 p. m.

The meeting was held at the Stevens Hotel, in the North Ballroom, Mary L. Guyton, presiding.

Miss Jane Addams, Hull House, Chicago, brought greetings and expressed her appreciation of the values and the accomplishments of the Adult Education movement.

Professor William S. Gray, University of Chicago, presented a paper on "Catching Up With Literacy." Paper filed.

Greetings from South Carolina were brought by Miss Wil Lou Gray.

Delightful music by the Lane Technical High School Orchestra completed the evening.

Joint Conference of the Department of Adult Education and the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life, July 5, 1933

James A. Moyer, president of the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life, called the meeting to order at 2:00 p. m., in Room 430-A, Stevens Hotel. Because of the large number attending the meeting was transferred to the Grand Ballroom Annex.

Elizabeth Wells Robertson, Supervisor of Art, Public Schools, Chicago, presented a paper on "ART TRAINING IN PREPARATION FOR ADULT LEISURE." Having finished her paper, Miss Robertson reported that in response to a request made by her, the Board of Directors of the NEA are permitting the establishment of a Department of Art. Miss Robertson's paper was received and filed.

"ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE THRU ART" was presented by Lorado Taft of Chicago. Paper received and filed.

In the absence of Willem van de Wall, State Department of Welfare, Harrisburg, Pa., his paper on "ENRICHMENT OF ADULT LIFE THRU MUSIC" was presented and read by Miss Guyton. Same was received and filed.

"AN ADVENTURE IN ADULT EDUCATION IN DAYTON" was presented by Don D. Longnecker, Principal, Fairview High School, Dayton, Ohio. Paper filed.

Under "Glimpses from the Field" the following speakers presented their papers, which were filed:

1. Mrs. Kenneth F. Rich, Director, Immigrants' Protective League, Chicago, Illinois.
2. Wil Lou Gray, Supervisor of Adult Schools, Columbia, South Carolina.
3. Charles Lunak, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois.
4. Frances K. Wetmore, Supervisor, Adult Education, Public Schools, Chicago.
5. A. W. Castle, Director, Extension Education Division, State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.

Because of absence, the papers of Maude Aiton, Director of Adult Education, Public Schools, Washington, D. C., and of Katherine M. Kohler, Director, Extension Division Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn., were not read.

Business Meeting

The business meeting was conducted by Mary L. Guyton. Treasurer being absent from the meeting, secretary was requested to read excerpts from the treasurer's report which was voted accepted and filed.

Mr. Moyer reported for the committee on bulletin. Report accepted. Mr. Moyer moved that the special committee on bulletin be continued for the next year and that it be authorized to issue four editions if possible and to adopt whatever plans in its discretion it deems necessary.

The Committee on Bulletin is composed of the following members: J. A. Moyer, Massachusetts; Robert C. Deming, Conn.; C. S. Marsh, New York; Marguerite Burnett, Delaware; Alonzo G. Grace, New York.

A letter from W. C. Smith, Business Manager of the *Bulletin*, was read by the secretary; it contained the following excerpts:

1. "I ask you to appoint a Business Manager for the following year."
2. "I am at the same time asking that all right, title, and interest, in the publication of the Regents Word List heretofore published by *Adult Education* be reserved to me, or to be disposed of by me in the liquidation of the affairs not directly concerned by the Department."

Mr. Moyer moved that a communication be addressed to Mr. Smith expressing deep appreciation of his services in the capacity of business manager during his term of office. Motion seconded by Miss Wetmore. Motion carried.

With reference to Excerpt 2, above referred to, Mr. Moyer moved that the request therein contained be granted. Motion seconded by Miss Wetmore. Motion carried.

Mr. Castle moved that the chairman be empowered to appoint a committee to study the bylaws and to make any recommendations for revision at the next annual meeting of the NEA. Motion seconded by Miss Gray. Motion carried.

Miss Wetmore moved that Article V, Sec. 2, be amended to include the words "except the Editor." Motion seconded by Mr. Moyer. Motion carried.

Frances K. Wetmore, Chairman of the Nominating Committee, presented the following slate: president, Mary L. Guyton; executive director, Charles Lunak; secretary, Caroline Whipple; treasurer, Agnes Winn; editor, Alonzo G. Grace. Mr. Moyer moved that the report of the nominating committee be accepted and that the secretary be instructed to cast one ballot for the election of these nominees to their respective offices for the ensuing term. Motion seconded by Miss Gray. Motion carried. Upon announcement by the secretary that the ballot had been cast the above names were elected to their respective offices for the ensuing term.

Mr. Castle, chairman of committee on resolutions, presented and read four resolutions. After reading resolution No. 1 he moved its acceptance. Motion seconded and carried. After presenting resolution No. 2 Mr. Castle moved its adoption. Motion seconded. Motion carried. Mr. Moyer moved that resolution No. 2 be mimeographed and copies sent to any organization or Board of Education which may be helpful in bringing about its objective. Motion seconded. Motion carried.

After reading resolution No. 3, Mr. Castle moved that it be adopted and that authority to the president of this department to distribute it in the manner referred to in relation to resolution No. 2. Motion seconded by Dr. Lunak. Motion carried.

After presenting resolution No. 4, Mr. Castle moved that it be adopted, with the provision that the president and secretary of the department be authorized to change the wording if necessary. Motion seconded. Motion carried.

The above resolutions are appended to the minutes of this meeting.

Chair announced that letters were received; one from H. A. Allan, under date of January 12, 1933, addressed to her, and one from Mr. Allan, under date of January 12, 1933, addressed to Mr. Smith. Miss Wetmore moved that the reading of these letters be dispensed with and that the letters be filed with the minutes of this meeting.

Miss Wetmore announced that a tea would be given at the Chicago Women's Club, Thursday, July 6, at 4 o'clock to which all interested in Adult Education are invited. Wil Lou Gray voiced the appreciation of the Department for the splendid services of Mary L. Guyton, its president.

RESOLUTIONS

BE IT RESOLVED—That the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association, grateful for the many considerations extended its members as guest of Chicago Public School officials and teachers, formally express its deep appreciation of the manifold courtesies received from and the complete conference dinner facilities provided by Dr. C. J. Lunak, Miss Frances Wetmore, their assistants, and teachers, and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED—That our Secretary be instructed to forward a draft of this resolution to Dr. William J. Bogan, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, to Dr. C. J. Lunak, Assistant Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, and to his assistant, Miss Frances Wetmore.

WHEREAS, In public education, the education of adults is directly and indirectly the most important factor in effecting social control and in determining social progress, and

WHEREAS, The present crisis in education necessitates retrenchment in expenditures in all departments and levels of education.

NOW, THEREFORE, BE IT RESOLVED—

1. That the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association respectfully requests and petitions its parent body to set forth unmistakably, by resolution, the relative importance of adult education in national and state programs of public education intended to effect social integration.

2. That such resolution direct attention to the wisdom of prorating required budgetary reductions among all school activities preserving for each at least a nucleus about which to construct its certain future developments.

3. That such resolution reiterate the social and civic necessity of continued reduction of illiteracy and a more effective assimilation of our foreign-born population as the more urgent adjustment needs of these classes of our adult population, restriction of immigration notwithstanding.

4. That such resolution emphasize the present urgent need for local provision of educational opportunities for our great body of high-school graduates and college students unable to attend college and unable to find employment, from which is springing our growing army of itinerant American youth.

5. That by such resolution attention be forcefully directed to the adult education implications of our rapidly growing leisure, with special reference to the social and recreational needs of the vast number of underprivileged adults especially in rural areas whose earlier education opportunities have been restricted.

6. That, by whatever means available, these adult education emergency needs and recommendations be brought to the attention of officials of public schools, colleges, and universities, thruout the nation.

WHEREAS, Because of decreased educational revenues, adult education in cities of several states has been entirely eliminated, and

WHEREAS, In some cities adult education has suffered a disproportionate decrease in budgetary appropriation, and

WHEREAS, No democracy can long endure unless its citizenry is literate, well-informed, and educated,

THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED—That no further decrease be made in appropriations for adult education, or if decrease must be made that only the same proportionate decrease be made in the appropriation for adult education as is made for all other educational activities.

MISS WIL LOU GRAY

J. O. HORNSTEIN

C. J. LUNAK

A. W. CASTLE, *Chairman*

Department of Art Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION became a part of the National Education Association by vote of the Representative Assembly on July 6, 1933. The creation of such a department was suggested "because art is an important subject, necessary to the development and culture of the childhood of America, and because this is a particularly important period in its life." The Department developed from the Conference on Art Education.

At the business meeting of the Department at the Chicago convention the following officers were elected to serve for the year 1933-34:

President, Elizabeth Wells Robertson, District Supervisor of Art, Public Schools, Chicago, Ill. *Secretary*, Edna E. Hood, Supervisor of Art, Administration Building, Kenosha, Wis. *Treasurer*, Marcella Jackson, Director of Art, State Teachers College, Castleton, Vt.

The Department of Business Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION was created in response to a petition read at the meeting at Saratoga Springs, New York, July 12, 1892, from the Business Educators' Association, requesting admission as a department of the National Education Association. See *Proceedings*, 1892:31. The Business Educators' Association was organized in New York City in 1878. Its constitution was revised for acceptance by the Department of Business Education and may be found on page 958 of the *Proceedings* of 1894.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Benjamin R. Haynes, Professor of Business Education, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.; *First vicepresident*, M. E. Studebaker, Director of Commercial Teacher Training, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.; *Second vicepresident*, Clay D. Slinker, Director of Commercial Education, Public Schools, Des Moines, Iowa; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Raymond C. Goodfellow, Director of Commercial Education, Board of Education, Newark, N. J.; *Executive Committee*: Paul S. Lomax, Annie C. Woodward, Seth B. Carkin, Dorothy L. Travis, B. Frank Kyker, Ernest A. Zelliot, E. G. Blackstone, G. F. Cadisch.

This Department meets once each year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of the meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1893:787-807	1901:721-757	1909:701-718	1917:315-344	1925:354-364
1894:957-994	1902:644-701	1910:833-872	1918:235-247	1926:373-391
1895:862-890	1903:719-752	1911:827-868	1919:259-269	1927:335-352
1896:791-835	1904:709-736	1912:1031-1093	1920:263-270	1928:305-324
1897:792-824	1905:669-705	1913:619-635	1921:369-376	1929:317-334
1898:856-892	1906:637-639	1914:649-662	1922:575-590	1930:275-292
1899:998-1030	1907:877-903	1915:883-940	1923:553-567	1931:343-358
1900:542-581	1908:871-906	1916:361-395	1924:429-438	1932:283-302

A PRELIMINARY STATEMENT OF THE GENERAL OBJECTIVES AND FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

EARL W. BARNHART, EDITOR, *National Business Education Quarterly*; AND
CHIEF, COMMERCIAL EDUCATION SERVICE OF THE FEDERAL BOARD
FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In accordance with the plan announced in the March number of the *National Business Education Quarterly*, there is presented herewith a preliminary draft of a proposed authoritative statement of the General Objectives and Fundamental Principles of Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools. It is hoped that this statement will become the basis for a nationally accepted comprehensive platform of the realizable objectives and fundamental principles which will be used by all public-school administrators, curriculum-makers, and teachers of commercial subjects. The need for such a generally accepted statement is too obvious to be elaborated here.

This preliminary draft has been compiled from the papers contributed to the March number of the *Quarterly* by a select group of distinguished educationists and commercial educators. The thanks of all interested in commercial education in this country are due to David Snedden of Columbia University, W. W. Charters of Ohio State University, P. W. L. Cox of New York University, John M. Brewer of Harvard University, L. S. Lyon of Brookings Institute, F. G. Nichols of Harvard University, James M. Glass of Rollins College, Ira W. Kibby of California, L. A. Rice of New Jersey, Regina E. Groves of Madison, Wisconsin, and Alexander Massell of New York, N. Y., for their generous help in contributing papers for use in preparing this statement.

This preliminary draft has been organized as logically as possible from the papers used as the basic contributions. Necessarily some ideas as taken from these papers have had to be rephrased to fit into the topical arrangement used in the statement. When necessary some ideas have been included within a more comprehensive generalization and a few items have been added by the compiler for completeness. Unfortunately, due to many duplications in the contributed papers, individual credit cannot be given for the various items used. In order to present as comprehensively as possible each of the major topics in this statement, certain items have been repeated in the different topics with the deliberate intention of showing the necessity for considering the application of these items to the topic in which they appear. This duplication was necessary for logical completeness in many of the major topics.

Each item in this statement both in its phraseology and in its possible significance to public-school commercial education is to be regarded as a thesis for discussion. The interested cooperation of all educationists and teachers of commercial subjects in all parts of this country is solicited for a critical

examination and careful revision of this statement. This preliminary formulation must be subjected to a minute evaluation by every group interested in, or connected with, public high-school commercial education before it can be regarded as an authoritative statement embodying generally accepted principles. The expressed and implied significance of each item must be fully appreciated and generally accepted by the rank and file of teachers of commercial subjects; the application of each item to every high school offering commercial courses must be understood; the value of each item in contributing to better educational service to all pupils enrolled in commercial courses must be fully realized. Unless there is such an understanding, acceptance, and realization of these principles so that they are generally followed, this statement, or any printed statement will remain only a well-intentioned wish, not a potent instrument for improving the social and economic effectiveness of commercial education in the public high schools.

It is hoped by the officers of the Department of Business Education that during the coming school year national and local organizations of commercial teachers, even those in individual high schools, will provide in their meetings programs for discussions of these objectives and principles, and that reports on the outcomes of these discussions will be forwarded to the editor of the *Quarterly*. Any modifications or additions which groups of commercial teachers submit for consideration will be carefully evaluated. Suggestions for changes are welcomed from individual teachers and educationists. In brief, the compiler of this statement invites the comments and contributions from all interested in the formulation of an authoritative statement which can be confidently followed by all public-school administrators, curriculum makers, and teachers of commercial subjects.

Plans have been formulated for publishing in the *Quarterly* during the coming year papers from business men, educationists, and commercial educators on these aspects of commercial education which should contribute most to developing an understanding of our economic life, and to more intelligent consumer use of business services. The items presented in these papers will be used in a more detailed formulation of the objectives and principles for these two major topics.

This preliminary formulation is now presented to the members of the Department to be used as the basis of the various conferences constituting the program of the Department at this meeting.

I. General Objectives of Commercial Education in Secondary Schools.

The general objectives of commercial education in secondary schools are to develop in each pupil to the maximum possible under controlling school conditions the abilities needed by the youth of a democracy.

1. To understand and sympathetically appreciate the workings of our economic system;
2. To use intelligently all the business services and facilities needed in conducting the business activities of a citizen;
3. To enter and succeed in a commercial occupation as a beginner who expects to follow business as a career;

4. To keep adjusted to the constantly changing economic conditions affecting workers
 - a. Seeking to win or retain a promotional position in a commercial occupation;
 - b. Engaged in managing a small business, whether commercial, industrial, agricultural, or homemaking in nature;
5. To enter some higher kind of commercial school.

II. Principles of Methods in Determining Objectives

1. Procedures for determining general educational objectives
 - a. Philosophic formulations of individuals and groups based on established trends in the community as determined by scientific data so far as available;
 - b. Scientific formulations
 - (1) Deductive by application of certain accepted general objectives of education to commercial education;
 - (2) Inductive by generalization from working objectives of superior teachers of commercial subjects.
2. Procedures for deriving objectives of commercial education by deductive process
 - a. Select general objectives of education which are relevant to commercial education;
 - b. Reformulate selected general objectives to apply to commercial education with such modifications, eliminations, and supplemental additions as are needed;
 - c. Modify learning activities directed by teachers of commercial subjects until these activities are the most effective available for developing the socially desirable outcomes of commercial education.
3. Procedures for deriving objectives of commercial education by the inductive process
 - a. Collect and compile the working objectives of superior commercial teachers;
 - b. Generalize the working objectives which express the trends of many individual teachers;
 - c. Modify the learning activities directed by teachers of commercial subjects until these activities are the most effective available for developing the socially desirable outcome objectives of commercial education.
4. Procedures for deriving working objectives by committee processes
 - a. Collect and compile answers of teachers of commercial subjects to the question: What contributions can commercial education make to the students and the community?
 - b. Formulate by a reviewing committee a consolidated statement of objectives;
 - c. Refer formulated objectives to classroom teachers for checking teaching objectives and procedures against the accepted and approved objectives.
5. Procedures for determining vocational objectives for commercial classes
 - a. For determining for what vocations a given school should train;
 - (1) Study community or school service area to discover what commercial vocations would be of the greatest value to the students and to the community;
 - (2) Follow up former students to note what commercial vocations were most frequently entered and eventually held by former pupils of the school;
 - (3) Interview employers in the school service area to see what training was desired of beginners and candidates for promotion;
 - (4) Review literature of occupations most frequently mentioned in the studies already indicated;
 - (5) Get from competent experts national trends in occupations under consideration;
 - (6) Select specific commercial vocations apparently of greatest value to students—both graduates and drop-outs;

- (7) Determine the beginning positions held in these vocations by graduates and drop-outs immediately after leaving school;
- (8) Determine training needed to supplement working experience in beginning and intermediate positions in the vocation;
- (9) Resurvey continually to keep objectives adjusted to changes in business employments;
- b. For determining what learning exercises should be used;
 - (1) Make job analyses of each vocation to discover the specific duties required;
 - (2) Analyze each duty into abilities—skills, knowledges, attitudes, ideals, emotional controls—needed for efficient performance of each duty;
 - (3) Determine ability units to be taught in each class;
 - (4) Select the specific learning exercises to be used for developing the abilities needed;
 - (5) Measure outcomes of learning against success in discharging specific duties.

III. Principles of Curriculum Construction

1. Objectives of commercial curriculum of any school depend upon
 - a. The character and functions of the school for which the curriculum is constructed;
 - b. The population and community to be served by the school;
 - c. The needs of our growing and developing social order in the community and nation.
2. A commercial curriculum in any school should include all those subjects which
 - a. Represent a properly balanced selection of the common and specialized commercial activities;
 - b. Have the greatest demonstrable use-values in social and business activities;
 - c. Develop the maximum of adaptability in the pupils.
3. The commercial program in any school must make provision for
 - a. Pupils who study some commercial subjects for general social outcomes;
 - b. Pupils who cannot qualify for the commercial vocations for which the school prepares;
 - c. Pupils who can qualify for the commercial vocations for which the school prepares;
 - d. Pupils who are preparing for commercial courses in higher schools.
4. All commercial subjects should develop abilities useful in
 - a. Home life;
 - b. Neighborhood and community memberships;
 - c. Vocational activities;
 - d. Leisure time activities;
 - e. Further educational activities—while at work and at school.
5. Vocational curriculums should provide for levels within each vocation; such as for
 - a. Juniors or beginners or low-level workers;
 - b. Operative workers or craftsmen—average-level workers;
 - c. Masters—high-level workers.
6. Each vocational commercial curriculum in a specialized vocational school
 - a. Should be confined to vocational subjects, leaving content and place of subjects included for general educational values to be determined by general educators;
 - b. Should present all subjects with special reference to their bearing upon the problems of the vocation;
 - c. Should include no subjects as essential—even health and civics—unless of demonstrated vocational value;

- d. Should develop those social traits necessary and desirable for successful adjustments in commercial occupations;
- e. Should provide organized training in emotional control and desirable personality development;
- f. Should use school business enterprises to provide for cooperative experiencing.

IV. Principles of Organization and Administration

1. Commercial courses and curriculums should be organized and administered to make socially effective provision within the resources of the school for
 - a. Pupils who study some commercial subjects for general social outcomes;
 - b. Pupils who cannot qualify for the commercial vocations for which the school prepares;
 - c. Pupils who can qualify for the commercial vocations for which the school prepares;
 - d. Pupils who prepare for commercial courses in higher schools.
2. Vocational commercial curriculums should be organized in terms of
 - a. Preparation for specific office and store occupations;
 - b. Specific occupational objectives, not of subjects;
 - c. All the commercial occupations in which a reasonable number of drop-outs and graduates from the school are known to find initial employment in the school service area;
 - d. Known occupational requirements in the vocations for which each curriculum prepares;
 - e. Preparation for every kind of adjustment required of beginners in each occupation;
 - f. Ability-levels within each occupational group open to beginners;
 - g. Time and amount of learning required for adequate preparation for occupations;
 - h. Participation in productive work in school, community, and commercial business activities on part-time basis;
 - i. Responsibility for placement and follow-up of all students enrolled.
3. Admission to vocational commercial curriculums should be determined as to
 - a. Age that is required by employers in the occupations for which the school prepares; in general minimum age of employment in the community; e.g., may be 16 or 17;
 - b. General or liberal education, minimum requirement generally completion of ninth grade; preferably completion of tenth or eleventh grade;
 - c. Determinable aptitudes; minimum required for success in the commercial occupations for which the school prepares;
 - d. Numbers reasonably likely to find initial employment in the school service area.
4. School authorities should know about each pupil enrolled in a vocational commercial curriculum
 - a. His reasons for selecting the particular vocation;
 - b. His possession of the mental and physical resources required for success;
 - c. His likelihood of entrance upon and success in that occupation.
5. Guidance in connection with vocational commercial curriculums should be based upon
 - a. Accurate information about different kinds of commercial vocations open to beginners in each ability-level in each commercial occupation;
 - b. Enrolling in a vocational curriculum only those students reasonably certain to be potentially trainable for and placeable in clerical or store positions of the kind for which the school prepares;
 - c. Not admitting pupils not interested in or qualified for commercial occupations, especially those for which the school seeks to prepare;

- d. Recognizing that some pupils are suited for only the lower ability-levels of certain commercial occupations;
- e. Transferring to some other course any pupil in a vocational commercial curriculum as soon as the presence is revealed of any factor preventing success in the selected commercial occupation for which the pupil is preparing;
- f. Retaining in a class no student who cannot reach the minimum employable level in the community in the occupation for which he is preparing.
6. Standards for graduation from a vocational commercial curriculum
 - a. Demonstrated competency to meet minimum standards of employment on the specific ability-level in the occupational field sought.
7. Time required for completion of the course
 - a. Depends upon the individual's rate of learning and the amount of learning he must acquire to meet minimum employment requirements.
8. Teachers of vocational commercial subjects should possess
 - a. Adequate general education;
 - b. Business experience of kind evidencing competency in the occupation for which their instruction prepares;
 - c. Social traits desired in commercial workers.
9. The institutional location of vocational commercial curriculums will depend upon
 - a. The numbers required for economical class administration—for some commercial vocations centralized state schools will be needed;
 - b. Entrance requirements in the occupation or the ability-level on which pupils prepare to enter
 - (1) Junior colleges may offer courses preparing for higher levels of occupations than high-school graduates can ordinarily enter upon graduation;
 - (2) Senior high schools may offer courses preparing for lower levels of common beginning office and store occupations.

V. Principles of Education for Economic Understanding

1. Justification for commercial education in public schools based on
 - a. Better informed citizens, "electorate";
 - b. Advancement of individual contributing to social welfare.
2. Commercial education should include non-vocational commercial knowledges and skills as a contribution to better citizenship;
3. Non-vocational commercial education should include a study of business;
4. All who actively participate in our economic life need appreciational knowledges about economic activities;
5. Relatively free and independent personalities require economic adjustments to world in which finances and business play a large part;
6. All producers should become familiar with factors affecting business; hence all should include courses of a social-economic nature.

VI. Principles of Education for Consumer Utilization

1. All who actively participate in the economic life of this country need
 - a. Adequate working knowledge of the various commercial facilities and services which all use;
 - b. Training in efficient management for their personal, home, and social organization economic activities.
2. Many persons can advantageously use certain skills, such as typewriting and shorthand in the more effective conduct of their personal affairs;
3. A course in elementary business information and practises should be offered to all junior high-school pupils;

4. All commercial programs and curriculums should include provision for developing an adequate
 - a. Understanding of the operation of our economic working organization;
 - b. Working knowledge of the various commercial facilities and services of the community which most people use;
 - c. Training in the efficient management of their personal, home, and social organization economic activities;
 - d. Skills in more effective commercial and recording activities;
 - e. Self-discovery of interest and aptitude for commercial vocations or a specific commercial vocation.
5. Achievement in the elementary business practise and elementary-personal use level—commercial skill courses should be regarded as of highly significant diagnostic and guidance value.

VII. Principles of Guidance in Commercial Education

1. Guidance implies recognition of different abilities and capabilities in youth;
2. Ability to make effective social and emotional adjustments;
3. Accurate information about different kinds of commercial vocations open to beginners should be accumulated in every school as an aid to individual counselling;
4. Guidance and counselling is a continuous process extending thruout the entire period of schooling, for additional information about the duties and requirements in an occupation must be supplied as the learner reaches points where he can understand the significance of the additional information;
5. Guidance includes developing an understanding in each student as to how he will proceed in directing his own learning and progress after leaving school;
6. For exploratory and guidance value
 - a. Elementary business information courses should be offered as an integral part of every commercial program;
 - b. Elementary skill courses should be conducted so as to serve as tryouts for discovery of aptitudes;
 - c. Failure in elementary business information and skill courses should be regarded as indicating lack of aptitude for success in certain commercial vocations;
7. All commercial programs should include exploration and tryout experiences before a selection of a specific occupational goal by a pupil is approved;
8. School authorities should know about each pupil in a commercial curriculum
 - a. His reasons for selecting the particular occupation as a goal;
 - b. His possession of mental and physical resources requisite for success;
 - c. Likelihood for entrance upon and success in that occupation.
9. Success in vestibule or elementary commercial subjects for purpose of exploratory experiences should be regarded as a prerequisite to the selection of a particular commercial vocation;
10. Much research is needed to discover learning curves in exploratory and preparatory courses as basis for determining probability of success in commercial vocations;
11. Initial store and clerical jobs are not satisfactory end points for business careers;
12. Only those students clearly potentially promotable should be encouraged to prepare for commercial occupations.

VIII. Principles of Vocational Commercial Education

1. Schools should provide as many as possible—economically practicable—vocational curriculums, each preparing for a specific commercial vocational field;
2. Each vocational commercial curriculum should be organized and conducted so as to prepare for

- a. A number of specific commercial occupations within the vocational field included in the objectives of the curriculum—shorthand, bookkeeping, salesmanship are vocational fields, not specific commercial occupations;
 - b. Specific ability levels with each occupation or in the vocational field;
 - c. Entrance and success in a known kind of beginning occupation;
 - d. Rapid promotion to more responsible positions within the occupational field.
3. Each vocational commercial curriculum should be organized and conducted so as to develop
- a. The minimum degree of operative skills required for satisfactory service by a beginner on a particular level in an occupation;
 - b. The specific related knowledges and understandings required;
 - c. A satisfactory degree of occupational judgment—intelligence or job-wisdom;
 - d. As wide as possible an amount of related knowledges of business practises and relationships of known vocational value;
 - e. The degree of social adaptability and emotional control necessary for making social adjustments of the kind required in the occupation;
 - f. The ability to maintain an acceptable or attractive personal appearance while engaged in the activity of the occupation;
 - g. The ability to select the particular kind of position in which the individual can render satisfactory service;
 - h. The ability to locate and obtain a position within the occupational field in which the individual can render satisfactory services;
 - i. The ability to deal effectively with people in the business relationships of the occupation;
 - j. The ability to preserve physical and mental health including emotional control while engaged in the activities of the occupation;
 - k. The ability to direct efficiently individual's own growth after leaving school in reaching higher levels in the occupation;
 - l. The ability to judge own working abilities in relation to entrance and promotional requirements in the different occupations open locally to beginners of the individual's own degree of occupational ability;
 - m. Continuous personal supervision and guidance for each student from the time he enrolls until he is satisfactorily placed in employment, including follow-up after placement so as to get a fair measure of the effectiveness of the training and guidance given.
4. Each vocational commercial curriculum should include
- a. Working experiences on a part-time employment schedule in school, or commercial business activities;
 - b. The use of the tools, materials, processes, and other characteristics of the occupation;
 - c. All the different kinds of learning experiences required to develop the degree of ability required for entrance and promotion within the occupation;
 - d. The presentation of all the different subjects in such a way as to show the special bearing of each subject upon the problems of the occupation.

OBJECTIVES OF BUSINESS EDUCATION AS VIEWED BY BUSINESS

JOHN Y. BEATY, EDITOR, *Bankers Monthly*, RAND MCNALLY AND COMPANY, CHICAGO, ILL.

Business needs young people with a genuine love for business. The routine subjects now taught are merely tools with which business men work. These tools—stenography, typing, accounting—are rapidly being replaced by machines. Business needs men who will succeed against every increasing com-

petition. When the objectives of education are routine rather than creative development, the scholars are not being prepared to meet the requirements of modern daily business. Modern business deals with human relations primarily, and only secondarily with things.

How many times have you said at the end of a weary day in school, "Oh, if only all of my scholars were like Fred. He gets his lessons every day. He remembers all that he learns. He always gets the best grades."

As a matter of fact, it would be a tragedy if all of your scholars were like Fred. They would be nothing but automatons. They would be little more than dictaphone cylinders. What you dictate to their minds, they retain, but they get nothing else. That is not what we need in business. We need thinkers and doers. We need young people in love with business.

Make your teaching real. If you wish to use a problem that concerns the sale of a case of tomato juice, borrow a case of tomato juice from the local store and have that before the class as you talk about it. Borrow the invoice the grocer received when the tomato juice was shipped to him and let the scholars handle the actual invoice. If they are studying the making of checks, let them write a check in payment of the invoice. Make their study real. Let them get the feel of business and your responsibility of making successful business men out of them will be much easier to fulfil.

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

LOUIS A. RICE, ASSISTANT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, TRENTON, N. J.

In his article in the March number of the *National Business Education Quarterly*, Professor P. W. L. Cox of New York University stated: "The general aims of secondary education are to be sought (1) in the preparation for participation by youths and adults in the duties of citizenship and in the most directly economic relations of cooperative group life; (2) for their participation in the production and distribution of economic utilities; (3) and for the life of the individual as a relatively free and independent personality." The first one of these aims deals with appreciational knowledges of many business procedures, such as credit, insurance, banking, taxation, amortization, real estate practise. It is closely akin to what was designated as "consumer education."

The second objective listed by Professor Cox is largely vocational, tho with a background of social-economic material, as his article well brings out.

The third objective may be divided into two phases: (1) self-discovery by the pupil of his abilities and his ambitions; (2) personality adjustment and development. The first of these is the function of the junior high-school business education, or of the exploratory or orienting course of the senior school—probably junior business training. Professor James M. Glass in his article in the March *Quarterly* states: "An introductory business course to the extent of assuring intelligent appreciation of the common customs

of business is a general need of all pupils. . . . This general survey course reveals to the early adolescent, during the period of his first conscious endeavor to adjust himself to his everyday environment of business, an intelligent interpretation of how he is related to it, how he should adapt himself to it, and how he should use it." We know from many studies that a large number of pupils fail in business because of reasons that have nothing to do with the ability to do clerical or stenographic work. These are failings in human contact or in behavior or in personality. They are just as numerous among pupils who have passed thru other high-school curriculums as among those who have passed thru the commercial curriculum. The school must give attention to what the pupil is, and how his appearance, character traits, and general demeanor may be improved, as it does to what his knowledges and skills are. To quote Glass again: "The required 'introduction to business' course has as strong a claim to a place in the core curriculum of constants as any other branch of general education designed to meet the needs of everyday living."

In formulating this part of the philosophy of business education, we are reminded of Kilpatrick's statement that philosophy emerges from conflicts of ideas. It seems to fit well here. The objectives of commercial education are a series of battles between forces commanded by General Necessity and General Desirability on the one hand and General Misunderstanding and General Disagreement on the other. While it might be difficult to formulate a statement of objectives that everyone will subscribe to in detail, it does seem that after half a century of intensive business education we should be able to state in fairly simple language just what we are after.

GUIDANCE IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION TOWARD VOCATIONAL AND NON-VOCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

ERNEST A. ZELLIOT, UNIVERSITY OF DENVER, DENVER, COLO.

Guidance in secondary schools is generally accepted as an all-school function to assist each pupil in developing an understanding about occupations, about education, and about himself that will enable him to choose and prepare for, more intelligently, a vocation in which he may serve with reasonable assurance of success. In this program, every teacher has something to contribute.

Opinions regarding the meaning of the term "commercial education" differ. Some would limit its use to education which definitely prepares for entry to, and advancement in, a business position. Business subjects pursued for non-vocational reasons would be "general education," not "commercial education." In the minds of many, any subject pertaining to business or a business skill is "commercial education," regardless of purpose. To avoid the issue, the term "commercial department" will be used in this discussion.

In the commercial department, a range of business subjects (dependent upon the size and location of the school) are offered from which pupils may select according to needs and purposes. These subjects, separately, or in combination, may emphasize one or more of several objectives. Among the objectives are: (1) the exploratory; (2) personal use; (3) general education; (4) orientation for the college school of commerce; (5) use in industrial or agricultural courses; (6) preparatory for advanced business study; (7) vocational background; (8) vocational skill training.

Wise choices of business subjects for any purpose depend upon effective guidance. In this, the commercial teacher has a major responsibility to assist thru many of his contacts. Among them are: (1) in the school guidance program as a whole; (2) as a reliable source for information about business education; (3) a sensible use of commercial tests; (4) in teaching exploratory business courses; (5) social business courses; (6) business skill courses; (7) extracurriculum commercial activities; (8) placement and follow-up.

In guidance within the commercial field, curriculum offerings are important but the attitude, the training, and the ability of the business teacher are most vital.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Ill.

First Session, Hotel Stevens, Saturday, July 1, 1933, 9:30 a. m.

The president, Paul S. Lomax, addressed the Association briefly, reviewing the progress of the past year. He then turned the meeting over to J. O. Malott, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C., the chairman of the morning program devoted to "Objectives of Business Education as Viewed by Classroom Teachers of Commercial Subjects."

Mr. Malott stated that as Earl W. Barnhart, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C., chairman of the Monday afternoon discussion of "Methods of Determining Objectives of Business Education," had been recalled to Washington by a telegram just received, he felt it best to exchange time assignments with Mr. Barnhart. After some discussion, Mr. Barnhart proceeded with the presentation of his topic, with subsequent discussion from the floor.

Second Session, Hotel Stevens, Saturday, July 1, 1933, 12:15 p. m.

Joint luncheon of the Department of Business Education and the National Association of Commercial Teacher Training Institutions. Miss Ann Brewington, University of Chicago, presided. The address was made by A. L. Threlkeld, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado, who told in a very interesting manner of the activities of the N. E. A. Commission on the Emergency in Education.

Third Session, Hotel Stevens, Monday, July 3, 1933, 12:30 p. m.

This session opened with a luncheon presided over by B. J. Knauss, Director of Commercial Education in the Chicago schools, who introduced the Chairman, Ellis D. McFarland of the Chicago Association of Commerce. McFarland spoke briefly and then introduced John Y. Beaty, editor of the *Bankers' Monthly*, who addressed the Department on "Objectives of Business Education as Viewed by Business."

Mr. Malott then reopened his discussion of the "Objectives of Business Education as Viewed by Classroom Teachers of Commercial Education" and spoke on this topic as did M. E. Studebaker of Ball State Teachers' College, Muncie, Indiana, and Lloyd L. Jones, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

L. A. Rice, State Department of Education, Trenton, N. J., then spoke briefly on "General Objectives of Commercial Education in Secondary Schools." This was followed by discussion led by C. C. Crawford, State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota, participated in by a number of teachers in the audience.

E. A. Zelliot, University of Denver, Colorado, then presented the problems of "Guidance in Commercial Education Toward Vocational and Non-Vocational Objectives."

This session was followed immediately by the annual business meeting.

Business Meeting

The business meeting was called to order by President Paul S. Lomax, of New York University, in the Hotel Stevens, Chicago, at 4:45 p. m., July 3, 1933.

The first matter considered was the Report of the Resolutions Committee, Helen Reynolds, Ohio University, chairman. This report was read by the secretary in the absence of the chairman, and was as follows:

Report of Resolutions Committee

The following resolutions are presented.

1. We express our appreciation to Mr. Knauss and to Miss Brewington for preparing for us the delightful luncheons of Saturday and Monday.
2. We express our gratification at the improvement in health of Clinton A. Reed, Department of Education, State of New York, a member of our executive committee.
3. We express our sorrow because of the illness of Ira W. Kibby, California State Department of Education, a member of our Executive Committee, and our hope for his speedy recovery.
4. We express to D. D. Lessenberry, Director of Business Education, University of Pittsburgh, our sincere sympathy in his recent bereavement.

(Signed) HELEN REYNOLDS

W. R. ODELL

Committee on Resolutions.

It was moved and seconded that these resolutions be adopted and spread on the minutes of the Department of Business Education, and that copies be sent to the individuals named therein. Motion carried.

The Secretary then read the minutes of the last business meeting which were approved.

The report of the Treasurer, L. Gilbert Dake, St. Louis, dated June 24, 1933, was then read by the secretary. It was moved and seconded that the report be accepted. Motion carried.

The report of the Budget Committee was presented by the Chairman, Clay D. Slinker, Des Moines. This estimate of expenses for the year 1933-34 totaled \$1390, based on anticipated income. It was moved and seconded that the proposed budget be adopted. Motion carried.

The President then called for consideration of the constitution which was laid on the table at the last business meeting. He explained that the experience of the year had shown that a few changes were desirable, and asked the secretary to enumerate them. The secretary explained that these changes had chiefly to do with combining the offices of secretary and treasurer, the custom of the Association prior to the current year, and establishing the office of second vicepresident, together with a few minor changes of wording. It was moved and seconded that the constitution be adopted with these changes. Motion carried.

The President read a letter from Edward J. McNamara of New York, organization chairman of the proposed American Council of Business Education, asking for the participation and indorsement of the N. E. A. Department of Business Education. After some discussion, it was moved and seconded that the President appoint a delegate to represent this Department at the organization meeting to be held in December, and that this Department proceed to cooperate in the formation of such a Council, provided, however, that any plans for full participation of this Department be subject to approval at the annual business meeting in June, 1934. Motion carried.

The report of the Nominating Committee, consisting of Mrs. Esta Ross Stuart, Berkeley, California, Helen Frankland, Nashville, Tennessee, Paul A. Carlson, Whitewater, Wisconsin, H. G. Shields, University of Chicago, and L. A. Rice, Chairman, was read by the chairman. (This report was not signed by Messrs. Carlson and Shields who were compelled to leave before the committee concluded its sessions.) The Committee presented the following nominations:

For President—Benjamin R. Haynes, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California

For First Vicepresident—M. E. Studebaker, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana

For Second Vicepresident—Clay D. Slinker, Director of Commercial Education, Des Moines, Iowa

For Secretary-Treasurer—Raymond C. Goodfellow, Director of Commercial Education, Newark, N. J.

For Members of the Executive Committee:

Terms Expiring 1934:

Paul S. Lomax, New York University (retiring president); Annie C. Woodward, High School, Somerville, Mass.; Seth B. Carkin, Packard School, New York; Dorothy L. Travis, High School, Pierre, South Dakota

Terms Expiring 1935:

B. Frank Kyker, North Carolina College for Women, Greensboro, N. C.; E. A. Zelliot, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado

Terms Expiring 1936:

G. F. Cadisch, State College, Pullman, Washington; E. G. Blackstone, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

It was moved and seconded that the report of the nominating committee be accepted. Motion carried. The president then called for nominations from the floor; there were none. It was moved and seconded that the secretary be instructed to cast a ballot for the nominees presented by the nominating committee. Motion carried. The president declared the above-named officers elected.

It was moved by Miss Wakefield, Fredericksburg, Va., seconded by Dr. Cadisch, that the secretary be instructed to voice the protest of the Department of Business Education against the elimination of federal representatives of commercial education, to Secretary Ickes. Motion carried. The president explained that this had already been done, and would be repeated if necessary.

There being no further business, it was moved and seconded that the Department adjourn. Motion carried.

The Department of Classroom Teachers

THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS held its first session at the St. Paul meeting, July 8, 1914. It was organized in response to petitions representing classroom teachers in all parts of the country. See *Proceedings*, 1914:909. The Department was reorganized under a constitution at the Boston meeting in July, 1922. For the constitution of this Department see pages 352-55 of this volume. For amendments see *Proceedings*, 1923:578; 1929:365; and 1931:390-91. The Department of Classroom Teachers cooperates with the National League of Teachers' Associations.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Faye Read, 131 Vernon Place, Pueblo, Colo.; *Vicepresident*, Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl, 3527 Pillsbury Avenue, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Mary D. Barnes, 223 Summit Road, Elizabeth, N. J.; *Director ex officio*, Mrs. F. Blanche Preble, 10855 Vernon Avenue, Chicago, Ill.; *Regional Directors*: Eastern Section, Daisy Lord, 1027 West Main Street, Waterbury, Conn. (Term expires 1934); Middle Section, Mary C. Ralls, 6529 Jefferson Street, Kansas City, Mo. (Term expires 1935); Western Section, Albert M. Shaw, 2833 Estara Avenue, Los Angeles, Calif. (Term expires 1936).

This Department meets at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1914:909-916	1918:381-389	1922:683-691	1926:393-423	1930:293-307
1915:1161-1177	1919:375-392	1923:569-620	1927:353-390	1931:359-392
1916:637-652	1920:343-355	1924:460-499	1928:325-352	1932:303-335
1917:615-622	1921:399-406	1925:365-402	1929:335-368	

PUBLIC OWNERSHIP THE WAY OUT

CARL D. THOMPSON, SECRETARY, PUBLIC OWNERSHIP LEAGUE OF AMERICA,
CHICAGO, ILL.

Our country is in the midst of the most serious crisis in the history of modern civilization. Fifteen million men and women are out of work—their purchasing power destroyed, their morale degenerating, and technological development making matters steadily worse.

Four million farmers driven from their farms. Ten thousand bank failures—and a banking crisis so serious that at one time every bank in the country closed. Utilities and industry paralyzed.

Schools and universities cutting down their terms of service and facilities just at the time they are most needed; teachers being dismissed to join the ranks of the unemployed; and many thousands of them unpaid for months upon months—14,000 of them here in Chicago alone.

And to this crisis and its needs our overlords and rulers of industry, civics and finance have no adequate answer. They can find \$90,000,000 to help a stranded private banking system here in Chicago; but when the unpaid teachers stormed these temples of the money changers asking for their pay the answer they got was, "To hell with the trouble makers."

But there is an answer to this tragic crisis—there is a way out. And it is the same answer and the same way out that our American people have always found and used when everything else has failed.

When America faced the problem and the necessity of universal education our public-school system was the answer and the way out. And in it we have the greatest institution of modern civilization.

When business and industry and the social requirements faced the necessity of universal dissemination of information and intercourse the postal system was the answer. And the only bank and banking system that withstood the storms of general bankruptcy in this present crisis was the U. S. Postal Savings Bank.

When the cities of America faced the grim necessity of supplying their inhabitants with water in sufficient quantities and in such qualities as would protect the public health and the safety of life and property, municipally owned water works was the answer and the way out.

Today there are 7,853 cities, towns, and villages that own and operate their own water works systems. And that means practically all of them.

So today in this present and most serious of all crises public ownership of basic utilities is the answer and the way out.

We see the United States government driven to the necessity of developing the great hydro-electric power project at Muscle Shoals. It is no longer a question of personal opinion or of social or political belief—it is a matter of incorrigible public necessity.

Men must have work. Private enterprise can not supply it. The public—the government must.

But the government cannot give men work unless it has work to give. Hence we are driven by public necessity into public ownership.

Cities, towns, and villages are being driven by the same necessity. Here in Chicago we are spending \$5,000,000 a month in unemployment and poor relief. Obviously, this cannot go on very long before it will bankrupt the city and impoverish everybody. On the other hand, here is another city, typical of thousands of others—the little city of Washington, Indiana—that is actually making money by keeping its people at work and so keeping them out of the poorhouse.

And how? The city owns and operates a revenue-producing, money-making electric light and power plant. Out of its surplus earnings it employs its unemployed, it reduces its public debt, reduces its taxes 60 percent, while other cities are increasing theirs. And when the depression came and its chief factory was about to close, the city, out of the surplus earnings of its municipally owned light and power plant, bought stock in the factory and kept it going, and so kept its people at work.

And the city makes 6 percent on its investment and sells the factory \$8,000 worth of electric current from its municipal light plant besides.

Other cities are doing even better. Los Angeles, out of the \$3,900,000 profit it makes every year on its municipally owned water, light, and power system, appropriates hundreds of thousands of dollars every year for the relief of the unemployed.

And these are but typical examples that could be multiplied almost indefinitely, illustrating the manner in which our cities, states, and federal government are being driven, whether they will or no, and in spite of all our stubborn conservatism and stupidity, to public ownership as the only way out of our present dilemma.

CRITICAL PRESENTDAY ISSUES IN EDUCATION

JESSIE GRAY, PHILADELPHIA NORMAL SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Before speaking of critical presentday issues in education in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania, I shall explain that in my city, we have a board of education appointed by the Board of Judges and responsible to them alone for the rectitude of their administration.

In the time since schools were divorced from politics, buildings have improved beyond our fondest hope. Our board has had a fine attitude toward their teachers, and our morale has been built up and strengthened by their paternal attitude. The board realized that fine teaching can only emanate from happy teachers. Their wise procedure has secured to us such fine conditions that I hesitate to tell of them, because of distressing contrast. It is with the fond hope that other boards will see what can be done with fine management that I shall relate what we have been able to hold.

In this period of distress and depression, it is not my purpose to boast of our good fortune but humbly to testify to a condition that has withstood

the assault of bad times, because of the superior management of our funds. For over forty years, it was said of the secretary of our board, "William Dick has had millions of dollars pass thru his hands, but not one cent has ever stuck to them." After his resignation, the present business manager, Edward Merchant, has managed the school funds, collected thru our nine and one-half mills school tax, in such a way that, notwithstanding an increase in the percentage of unpaid taxes, the board of education has paid all bills currently with the exception of the year 1931. In our schools there has been no reduction in the number of books nor in stationery and supplies.

There has been no harmful curtailment in repair work and today the buildings are in better condition than they ever were, and are being kept at that standard.

There have been no reductions at all in teachers' salaries and no dismissals of teachers. As vacancies occurred thru death or resignation, the places have not been filled. Thereby, in many cases classes have become larger. Our pupil-load, however, is about normal.

There has been no shortening of the school term which is fixed by the state.

The building program has been stopped, but no more than it should be, because, with changing conditions, it would not have been possible to tell the right location for new buildings.

In our state we have held all reductions in our program down to a two-year period 1933-35.

We have been able to hold the retirement law intact. To guarantee the contributions, an act was passed making it optional for teachers to pay on their peak salary (altho receiving a temporary reduction). If teachers decided to do this, it became necessary for the state and local district to do likewise. This safeguards amounts to older teachers within the last ten years of service, the average salary for which is the basis for computing the retirement allowance. This brings great happiness to teachers.

Legislation was enacted to prohibit salary refunds which boards of school directors were requesting, in some sections, in lieu of actual salary reductions.

Legislation permitting salary reductions of ten percent was passed and state subsidies for school districts were reduced approximately ten percent. School districts were legally permitted to issue and sell bonds to the extent of eighty percent of uncollected taxes, with the proviso that such bonds must be liquidated within ten years thru definite sinking funds or other provisions.

A bill was enacted to permit groups of teachers to organize and participate in credit unions.

To meet the present crisis our organizations have aroused individual members to a realization of the need of definite action which was suggested—a visit, a letter, a telegram to their legislators.

Key individuals were carefully selected to contact leaders in groups favorable to education and opposed to education. Dignified publicity material was disseminated to teachers, taxpayers associations, editors of newspapers and current magazines; the American and State Federation of Labor, the P. O. S.

of A., the American Legion, Chambers of Commerce, Rotary Clubs, League of Women Voters, Federation of Women's Clubs, Parent-Teacher Associations, and the Grange.

Every time we teachers could arouse lay groups to defend educational programs, we had not only a first but a second and stronger line of defense.

CRITICAL PRESENTDAY ISSUES IN EDUCATION

ROBERT C. KEENAN, HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER, CHICAGO, ILL.

The question is asked, what more can organizations do in this crisis? I think they can and should do a lot more. It seems to me that organizations are apt to lose sight of the reason for their existence, until the organization becomes an object in itself. Officers are too likely to determine the value of their services in terms of bigger and better memberships, rather than in actual accomplishments redounding to the benefit of their members. The criterion of success does not appear to me to be the erection of a fine headquarters building, the publication of a handsome and self-laudatory house organ, or the holding of monthly, semi-annual, or annual talk fests. Americans seem to have a mania for conventions. Chicago is having so many this year that we hope to see at least a local return of prosperity, perhaps sufficient for this hotel to pay its long overdue taxes. But aside from providing an opportunity for tired business men to get a little vacation away from the home fireside, and for the fortunate delegates to get a trip at the expense of the Brother Elks, I don't know just how much good is accomplished at most conventions, unless you call an accomplishment, the passing of a lot of resolutions which are straightway buried in the files. I do not say this of N. E. A. conventions for I never attended any, but I have attended others, business and educational. Usually they are just a lot of talk, dealing in generalities and platitudes and flag waving and beautiful theories, with little concrete result.

I don't know how much of all this abuse of organizations applies to the N. E. A. for, as I said, I am a novice. I suspect, however, some of it does apply. I certainly feel that if a national organization with the power that this group could wield had functioned with proper efficiency during the past twelve months the schools would long since have shared with the banks, insurance companies, railroads, farms, public improvements, and all the rest, in the right to federal aid in bridging this emergency.

It has been stated that R. F. C. funds will be supplied to Russia for the purchase of cotton. China is to be given the use of R. F. C. funds to buy wheat. In this city we have the famous or notorious bank that borrowed \$90,000,000 from the R. F. C.; and I observed the statement a few days ago that the Northwestern Railroad would probably refund its maturing bonds by borrowing 50 percent of the amount from the R. F. C. Yet the schools of this nation are denied the right to employ federal credit at a time when the natural sources of credit, the banks, have practically dried up. This

is not Chicago's problem alone. I attended a conference in Washington last February at which mayors from cities all over the country pleaded for the government to rescue them from the banker Shylocks who take advantage of this critical time to demand the last pound of flesh in exorbitant interest rates and mutilated budgets before they will buy municipal securities. Had the teachers thruout the land acted vigorously and in concert, there is no doubt that Congress would have considered education at least on a level with bankrupt railways and sewage disposal plants. You all realize, I am sure, that it is only by such vigorous united action in the past that you have obtained from your state legislatures whatever benefits education enjoys in your state. A few days ago I read a story about the teachers and P. T. A. of a town in Alabama who got together in public prayer to avert a cut in the educational budget. Far be it from me to deny the efficacy of prayer, but I am reminded that when some of the Continental Congress objected because the Chaplain prayed, as usual, that the Lord would shower his Divine Wisdom upon the king, Benjamin Franklin pointed out that it could do no harm for they had been offering that prayer for many years and the king showed no wisdom yet. To influence our statesmen you must say it, not with flowers but with votes.

We in Chicago believe there is a nationwide plot to cripple public education, to take it out of the reach of the common man's children and restrict it to those who can pay for it. We think the focal point of the plot is Chicago, but we know that the attack led by socalled citizens' committees is going on in the same way all over the country. These committees are made up of men of power and wealth and position. They are answerable for their actions to none unless their boards of directors, because they are not elected by the people. They have behind them the support of the press for they represent the large advertisers.

One of our Chicago newspaper publishers goes about the country giving talks against high taxes. His paper has always been adverse to paying taxes. For many years it occupied tax free land which it rented from the school-board at an absurdly low figure. In crying out against fads and frills he fails to point out that tho his paper raised both its price and its advertising rates during boom times it has never reduced them. And while inveighing against school buildings, his paper erects a highly ornamental elaborate building and continues to publish so many pictures of it that I'm sick of looking at them.

Another Chicago gentleman, one of the leaders in our self-appointed group of city saviors, wrote an article which you may have read last January in the esteemed *Saturday Evening Post*. In it he explained that the large taxpayers had taken control here and would never again release control. He himself termed the committee an "extra legal body," but in publishing this article the magazine gave us a hint as to our power. Teachers all over the country wrote letters of protest to the publisher. Moreover, a good many of them wrote similar letters to those who advertise in the *Post*. This was hitting the magazine where it hurt most—in the pocketbook. Last April Mr.

Crabtree showed me a letter he had received from the publisher. It stated that the teachers were not only influencing subscriptions but were actually interfering with advertisers! That's horrible, isn't it? The most interesting thing, however, happened just last week. The same magazine published an article entitled, "Blank Pay Days," purported to be written by a Chicago teacher. This was plainly an effort to retrieve the previous error, and so anxious was the editor to have us all read it that he sent every Chicago teacher a postcard telling about it. Of course it is a weak article which does not attempt to answer the one to which we objected, but it shows that the *Saturday Evening Post* has a somewhat penitent spirit and wants to placate our wrath.

If our organizations would temporarily at least spend less time considering methods of teaching, curriculums, character training, health education, and the other proper subjects of peace times, and instead devote themselves wholeheartedly to the war with greed and special interests they would better serve their members and would find memberships growing as a consequence of the appreciation of the common teacher.

We teachers need make no apology for our stand. We do not object to true economies; we advocate elimination of waste and non-essentials. We can show that our enemies are not sincere. For example, in Chicago our janitor system is the highest paid in the country while our teachers rank low among cities comparable in size. The fact is notorious; yet our citizens committee has not changed it. While the board of education shortens the school term and searches for more means to save another six million, you may have noticed in the papers last week that the city is planning to build another island out in the lake at an initial cost of \$8,000,000 in order to bring the airport fifty minutes closer to the center of the city.

The old slogan is reversed. It is now "Millions for airplanes, concrete roads, stop and go lights, or world's fairs, but very few cents for education."

But the public still wants its children educated. The parents will not tolerate the destruction of the schools, if they are informed. We have the best machinery in the country for molding public opinion for we come in contact with all the people. Let us inform them of the true facts. Let us take up the gauntlet hurled at us by big business; let us, too, fight for a new deal.

SOME PRESENTDAY ISSUES IN EDUCATION

MRS. JOHANNA LINDLOF, NEW YORK, N. Y.

The City of New York has been no exception in the campaign to reduce educational costs. Last winter they held a special session of the legislature and reduced the salaries of the teachers \$20,000,000. However, because the teachers were awake and were organized, we were able to refuse to take a voluntary cut as our then worthy mayor has suggested to us during the summer vacation and we were successful in having the bill that was passed provide a graded cut, which made it easier for those who had the lowest salaries.

There is one other thing I would like to say about the New York teachers organizations. We feel that we have been able to hold the fort for our teachers and for educational standards in the state, because we have been united as one great body, altho we have so many varied teachers organizations in the city. Whenever we appear before the legislature we come as one united group and they listen to us.

Even at that special session, when our salaries were reduced, we made an attempt and even the governor of the state attempted, altho futilely to get the bankers of the state to agree to a stated time for the duration of the cut, but that "worthy" gentleman, Mr. Mitchell, representing the bankers at the other end of the wire absolutely refused. So we were compelled to take the cut for an indefinite period.

Now, I want to tell you a little bit about the bankers and teachers of New York. Last September we held a very large meeting in the auditorium of one of the schools of the city and our speakers on that occasion told the teachers what the bankers were about to do and there were teachers among us at that time who felt that our speakers were over-stating the situation, that these worthy men who have control of the finances of the country would never think of doing these things. My friends, what Dr. Lefkowitz and Mr. Lewis told us that day did not half express the situation. What has been revealed by the Senate investigation has told us ten times more.

We have issued a little pamphlet called, *Teachers and the Economic Situation*, which gives you facts which every teacher in this nation should know. This has been published by three groups in New York: the Teachers' Union, Local No. 5 of the American Federation of Teachers, the Teachers' Welfare League, and the Kindergarten 6-B Teachers' Association. Dr. Abraham Lefkowitz, one of the ablest teachers in our city, is the author. We have 500 copies of this pamphlet here which are to be distributed free of charge to all who wish to have them. I hope that nobody who can possibly obtain a copy will go away without getting one, reading it, studying it, and imparting the information it gives to all whom you can get to listen, not only to teachers but to parents and citizens everywhere.

You want to know what teachers organizations can do. I will tell you what the teachers can and should do. You are the teachers of the nation. You are training the citizens of this nation. If we have a poor government, whose is the responsibility but the teachers who have confined their efforts to teaching the academic subjects, who have been so afraid to delve into social sciences, who have been afraid to get the pupils to thinking about things outside of the classroom that concern us?

I have been pleased at this convention to find that we are being told that we have rights to consider outside of the classroom as well as within; that our jobs concern the lives and the things that happen all around us. Far more important than teaching our pupils how to add, multiply, and divide is it to teach them to think and understand that we are living not to ourselves alone and that this civilization which we have built up to be nothing but an acquisitive civilization is all wrong; that the new deal, if it shall mean

anything shall mean what this man told us here today—that this shall be one of the important things that you are going to go out and teach your children.

I have belonged for many years and I hope to belong as long as I live, to another organization of teachers, as well as this—the American Federation of Teachers, which is a body for all the teachers of this nation, just as the National Education Association is. I hope and believe that the time will come when these two bodies, the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association will join together in one vast body to mold public opinion, to work for the same ends. Our goal should be to bring about the kind of civilization that will not let any child starve, that will let no child go unclothed, and let no men or women go hungry, that will let no one be without food or shelter when there is plenty all about us, and the means should be right here for everyone to live in comfort and make this world something like the place so many of you talk about when you think of heaven, a place where everybody will be happy.

Why need we acquire millions thru the exploitation of other human beings? Why do we permit a situation of that sort? Why? Because we have grown up in a civilization where that was the common thing. Must we continue to think that way? This man today has shown you what is done by these public utilities, that they take the money from you and then ask you to reduce your salaries when what they are stealing—that is the word that describes it—from all of us could be well used to give educational opportunities to all the people.

Now what can be done by a publication like this one which I have here for distribution, can be done in many other ways and let us hope that the teachers of this nation, thru the medium of speakers, such as the guest speaker here today, and thru the study of economics and of ethical standards shall go out with a message to the nation that will prove that depressions are unnecessary, that there is enough and to spare for all, and that we can and should do our part to make that situation possible.

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

MRS. F. BLANCHE PREBLE, VAN VLISSINGEN SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association has been called upon constantly during the year by both local and state groups of teachers for advice and assistance. Your president has endeavored to meet the calls, but many times she was not able to respond due to conflicting dates and other causes.

I have spoken to 35 groups of teachers in 27 cities and 11 states. In all my contacts with the teachers I have tried to emphasize the importance of local, state, and national organizations and especially the necessity for classroom teachers being organized locally in groups where administrators are not present. I have told them of course that all-inclusive groups have a place but that the great mass of the teachers on whom we must depend for defense

against such attacks as are being made on education today cannot be aroused to their full strength and interest unless the natural leaders among them can have the opportunity of working with the teachers in groups by themselves.

In making plans for addressing teachers in various cities I have tried always to appear before a meeting called by the teachers. This makes the meeting their own project and makes them interested and enthusiastic about it in advance, and thus it is much easier to reach them with my message than if they were called together by some one in authority. I have found the superintendents and other administrators very friendly toward the National Education Association and the Classroom Department and very anxious to have us do anything we can to arouse interest and enthusiasm in the teachers. When I have gone into the principles underlying the necessities for having teachers organized by themselves I have been met with understanding and sympathy from the administrators even tho in many instances they seem not to have thought of these underlying principles before.

On July 20 I spoke before summer school students of the Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti at a special assembly called for the occasion. Many of them were experienced teachers and I found them keenly interested in the problems of the profession as we find them today.

On October 14 and 15 I attended the annual meeting of the Southeastern Division of the Illinois State Teachers Association at Flora, Ill., and spoke twice on the general program, each time to an audience of 1200 teachers. This section of the state is definitely rural and feels especially the discrimination against agriculture thru revenue laws based on a state constitution adopted in 1870 before the rise of great industrial cities of wealth. Such a constitution provides no effective method of equitably distributing the tax burden. Now at the end of a year of intensive campaigning by the teachers of Illinois the leaders of the teachers feel that the lines have been held fairly well so far as school legislation goes but practically no progress has been made toward a permanent solution of financial problems of the state.

In New York, N. Y., on October 17 I met the officers of the High School Teachers Association at a dinner conference, and on October 24 I conferred with the president of the Kindergarten-6B Association and the teacher members of the pension board. Both these conferences were arranged by Sara Fahey, director exofficio of the Department. These two large associations of classroom teachers have made remarkable contributions to the schools in their own city and state. Let us hope that they will in the future make their influence felt more strongly in the councils of the National Education Association and of the Classroom Department. The combined membership of the two New York groups is so great that if all of them were represented in the delegate assembly of the National Education Association the classroom teacher movement would take on a new significance.

On the afternoon of October 18 I spoke to the Teachers Association in Rahway, N. J. A number of teacher leaders from the neighboring city of Elizabeth attended the meeting also. The elementary teachers of that state succeeded last year in forming a department in the state association.

I spent October 19 and 20 in the headquarters at Washington getting acquainted with the work there. Mr. Crabtree called a special meeting of the staff at which we discussed the work of the Department. Miss Winn and I also went over in detail the plans for the year. Even this short stay at headquarters added very much to my appreciation of the power and importance of the National Education Association.

On October 22 I spoke at Greensboro, N. C., on the general program of the annual meeting of the Northwestern District Teachers of the North Carolina Education Association, and also at a meeting of the classroom teachers of the district. Three hundred teachers gathered in the cafeteria of the senior high school for a six o'clock dinner which was followed by a business meeting. At that time the teachers voted to organize a classroom department for the district, adopted a constitution, and elected officers. It was the hope of the North Carolina teacher leaders that a classroom department might be formed in each district of the state during the year.

On October 27 and 28 I attended the meeting of the Minnesota Education Association at St. Paul. There I addressed the Classroom Department of the State Association at a luncheon which was attended by about 650 teachers. As in all sections of the country that I have visited, the Minnesota teachers were very much disturbed by actual and threatened cuts in educational budgets. They are fortunate, however, in having a number of strong local associations of classroom teachers in the state to back up the school administrators in Minnesota in their efforts to save educational budgets from ruinous reductions.

On November 16 I spoke at the annual dinner of the Elementary Teachers Association at Springfield, Ill. This group has been organized less than two years but already shows progress. They have been working with the High School Teachers Association of Springfield, together with some other groups in the state in making plans for a State League of Teachers Associations.

The next evening, November 17, I spoke at the annual dinner of the Milwaukee Teachers Association. This occasion showed that the teachers were able to laugh at their own troubles in the little drama they put on and also that they were guarding the interests of Milwaukee schools in their usual effective way.

December 2 and 3 found me working among the teachers of Rockford, Ill. Conferences began upon my arrival at six o'clock in the evening, and ran almost continuously thru the next day. The climax was a luncheon given by the Rockford Teachers Association. This group is very earnest about teacher welfare and has committees working on plans for group insurance, a credit union, and other definite activities.

The period from December 8 to 17 was spent in southern Michigan. I spoke before the Albion Teachers Club, a group of teachers from Hillsdale County, and the Association of Teachers Clubs from Southeastern Michigan. The latter association includes clubs from seven counties of that part of the state, banded together with the hope that they may be able to protect

the children from the consequences of the depressed economic conditions of this industrial section. According to the information received recently, at least two classroom groups have been organized in that part of the state—one in Highland Park and one in Detroit.

On this trip I visited the campuses of Albion College, Hillsdale College, Michigan State Normal College, and the University of Michigan. In all four schools I spoke to classes in the departments of education. The Michigan teachers then were thinking very seriously about the financial problems of the schools of their state in view of the fact that their state constitution was amended last November so that the tax rate on real and personal property must not be greater than 15 mills on a dollar. They have been working very hard with their legislature to try to save the schools and at present I am not able to say what success they have had.

On April 8 I attended the annual meeting of the Southwestern Division of the Illinois State Teachers Association at East St. Louis. Here I made a short address on the main program, but the chief event of my day there was a luncheon for classroom teachers sponsored by the East St. Louis Grade Teachers' Fellowship Society. Nearly 300 teachers were in attendance and listened with gratifying attention to my address on the aims of the Classroom Department, and on the contribution that classroom teachers should make toward helping to solve the problems now facing public education in America.

The Classroom Teachers Association of Tulsa, Okla., invited me to speak at its annual business meeting on April 20. I found this group very progressive and most eager to stand by the local schools in the present crisis. After the meeting I attended a dinner with the executive board of the association.

The committee in charge of securing speakers for the St. Joseph, Mo., Teachers Institute asked me to be the speaker at their final institute held on April 22. The attendance was practically 100 percent and I found the teachers of this city most willing to work together in the difficult task of saving education. On the evening before the meeting the St. Joseph Teachers Club gave a very fine reception for me which was attended by a large number of the teachers and principals, and the superintendent and his wife.

The Association of High School Women of Kansas City, Mo., sponsored a dinner at which I spoke on the evening of April 22. All teachers in the city were invited and a large number responded. The dinner was a delightful affair and I found the teachers there very much interested in understanding and warding off the nationwide attack on the schools.

During the month of May I traveled in New York state where I made a series of ten addresses in nine different cities. The trip was planned by Emily Tarbell, president of the Teachers Welfare League of New York state. My first stop was at Jamestown where I spoke on May 1 at a dinner given by the Women Teachers Club. This Club has some very fine leaders and the true classroom teachers' spirit.

On May 3 I spoke at a dinner in Elmira which was arranged by the Women Teachers' Club of that city. I found them a very enterprising

group determined to see that education takes no more than a fair share of the economies resulting from the depression. In the afternoon I spoke for fifteen minutes over the local radio station on "The National Emergency in Education." The next address was given on May 4 before the teachers of the Cortland schools. This was an afternoon meeting and was well attended by teachers eager to find a way out of present difficulties.

The Syracuse Teachers Association arranged for an afternoon meeting for May 5. This group showed unusual appreciation of the difficulties facing education and are taking a leading part in the struggle in New York state. The meeting was followed by a dinner conference with the officers of the association. On Saturday, May 6, I spoke in Syracuse at a regional conference called by Miss Tarbell, at which nine cities and towns were represented—Auburn, Binghamton, Elmira, Geddes, Oneida, Rome, Solvay, Syracuse, and Weedsport. Luncheon was served at the Hotel Syracuse and the discussion lasted thruout the afternoon. In the midst of the conference I left for a fifteen minute broadcast, and then returned to find the discussion still going on.

The Elementary Teachers Association of Troy held an evening meeting at which I spoke on May 8. This, too, is an earnest group of women devoted to the interests of the schools.

In the City of New York the Kindergarten-6B Association held a special meeting which I addressed on May 9. This group is ever on guard in the interests of children and teachers and should be given much credit for the way in which the lines have been held in their city this year. The meeting was followed by a dinner conference with the officers. On the evening of May 11 I attended a dinner given by the executive board of the High School Teachers Association of the City of New York. I found this a stimulating and well-informed group.

Daisy Lord, our eastern regional director, met me in New York City on Saturday, May 13, and we went together to her summer home near Milford, Conn. There I conferred with teachers from New Haven, Bridgeport, Waterbury, Norwich, and New London. This little state is very well organized as far as teachers are concerned and is making a real contribution in these troublous times.

On the way back to Chicago I stopped at Rome, N. Y., and spent a day there, May 16, where I spoke at an afternoon meeting attended by all the teachers. This was followed by a dinner conference arranged especially for teachers interested in forming a classroom organization for Rome. Definite plans were made which will undoubtedly result in such an organization.

On May 23 I was called to South Bend to speak before the Teachers Federation there. Like so many groups of teachers they have had drastic cuts and are facing great uncertainty next year; but they are determined to carry on as best they can and to save everything possible for education.

The meeting of our Department at the winter conference in Minneapolis was most successful. The cooperation of Superintendent Reed of that city, and the enthusiastic work of the local committee of teachers under the chair-

manship of Myrtle Hooper Dahl resulted in the largest midwinter luncheon and conference ever held by the Department. Nearly 600 people were in attendance and most of them remained thruout the afternoon for the discussion conference on "Recent Significant Changes Affecting the Pupils and Teachers in the Public Schools." All the speakers for the conference were classroom teacher leaders from various sections of the country and the members of the executive board of the Department. Intelligent interest was shown in all the facts brought out and the originality and freedom of the discussion was pronounced.

This meeting was an outstanding example of the way classroom teachers can work together in presenting and evaluating significant information regarding public education. A quotation from our Department president's report of last year is quite pertinent in describing the Minneapolis conference: "The keen analysis of the situation made by these teachers and others who were drawn into the discussion, and the interest manifested by the audience demonstrated clearly that teachers are ready to discuss their own problems, and are willing to profit by such discussion. The old myth, that it is necessary to secure a widely-known speaker for our winter meeting in order to draw an audience, was laid low by this conference of teachers." All the members of the executive board of the Department were kept very busy thruout the week with meetings of the board, with attending the meetings to hear the inspirational addresses given by speakers of national note, and in visits to the schools of Minneapolis.

There has been little committee activity in the Department this year because of the fact that teacher leaders thruout the country have been so absorbed in local problems. At the annual business meeting a year ago a committee on academic freedom of the teacher was recommended. Professor Karl Guenther of Ypsilanti, Mich., was appointed chairman of such a committee and he and the other members have been at work for some months on a report to be presented at the business meeting in Chicago. The committee on resolutions was appointed with Anna Thompson of Kansas City, a former president of the Department, as chairman. This committee will also report in Chicago. The Eighth Yearbook committee has done remarkably fine work this year. This volume probably will be published early in 1934.

At the meeting in Minneapolis the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence set up the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. The commission consists of seven members: three city superintendents, one state superintendent, one dean of education, a college professor of school administration, and a classroom teacher. Your president is the classroom teacher member. The other members are John K. Norton, chairman, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; J. B. Edmonson, dean, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Sydney B. Hall, state superintendent of public instruction, Richmond, Va.; A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.; Herbert S. Weet, superintendent

of schools, Rochester, N. Y.; and David E. Weglein, superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Md.

The commission has had meetings in seven cities—Cleveland, Minneapolis, Kansas City, Chicago, Atlanta, Cincinnati, and Washington—and I have attended all of the meetings except the one in Atlanta. In Kansas City, Chicago, Atlanta, and Cincinnati we held what we term regional conferences. At these gatherings we call into the centers chosen a list of consultants from five or six near-by states and go into conference with them for the purpose of getting first-hand facts about conditions in each state, and advice as to how the commission can help with the problems in the different states. The consultants are selected because of their key positions in education and there are about 450 in all. All the members of the executive board of our Department have been appointed. The results of each conference have been written up in the form of minutes and sent to each member of the commission and to each consultant who has been appointed for the region in which the conference was held. The work on the commission has been most interesting to me and I feel sure that we have been helpful to many educational leaders who have been hard pressed this year in their efforts to defend education.

Former presidents of the Department have reported many times on the appointment of our officers to important places on N. E. A. committees and on those of other departments. This year, besides acting on the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, your president has been the member from Illinois on the N. E. A. Resolutions Committee. I have been invited by President Rosier to speak before the Representative Assembly at the convention in Chicago and am also to speak at the meeting of the Department of School Health at its annual meeting.

At this point I wish to acknowledge the splendid support the Department has had during this trying year from Secretary Crabtree and all other members of the headquarters staff. Miss Winn, director of Classroom Service, has been especially helpful. The Board of Directors has been most loyal and cooperative.

And now I cannot close this report without paying some words of tribute to the leaders I have met on my conference trips about the country for the many kindnesses they have shown to me which have added much to my comfort and happiness. The leaders that classroom teachers choose when they are directing their own affairs with no suggestion from those in authority stand out as people far above the average. Not only have they impressed me by their gracious hospitality and their delightful social qualities but by the other qualities of real leadership which they possess. The contacts that I have had this year have given me much more faith in democracy than I have ever had before. That is why I am so insistent in saying that classroom teachers must be organized by themselves. A classroom teacher group organized with the right machinery can be a pure democracy. If we sometimes feel that democracy has not been highly successful in this country careful thought will lead us to realize that insofar as our government has failed to

give the greatest good to the greatest number it has been because of too little democracy rather than too much.

In working out all the numerous details in connection with the summer meeting to be held in my own city of Chicago there has been with me an undercurrent of gladness because I was thinking always of the joy there would be in seeing again the fine leaders I have met in the many cities I have visited; the joy that would come in renewing friendships founded on devotion to a common cause. I hope that officers of the Department will always feel that one of the important parts of our conference work is the cementing of friendship between us and the nation's teacher leaders.

(Reports of the other officers may be found in the Department's *Official Report*, June, 1933.)

A HISTORY OF THE DEPARTMENT—A RECORD WITH A FUTURE

SARA H. FAHEY, GIRLS COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

The rapid development in recent years of associations of teachers, which influence the policies of the National Education Association and participate in its work, forms an interesting chapter in the history of the Association.

In order to realize better how far forward they have traveled it is well occasionally for teachers to glance backward. By so doing they realize, too, how much they owe to pioneer members of their vocation who daringly blazed the trail in so many directions when the world around them, and the frequently reactionary members of their own group, blocked their progress with all the impact of a stone wall. Moreover, it makes them realize that it is possible to reach the goal toward which they are now striving despite the grave obstacles that at times threaten to make the way impassable.

Sixty-three years ago, the Department of Superintendence was organized in the National Education Association in response to a felt need of administrators and supervisors. The department thus formed established the practise of holding a winter convention and soon became the policy forming body in the N. E. A. Problems were discussed at these midwinter meetings, and recommendations based on the findings were submitted the following summer at the annual meeting.

At last a few leaders of local organizations, realizing the power and influence exerted by the Department of Superintendence, decided that a department for classroom teachers was the next necessary step. In 1912, a petition was presented by Margaret Haley of Chicago asking that such a department be established. At first, teachers were told that their interests were being cared for by the Department of Elementary Education which had been organized some years before. But as this department was directed wholly by people in supervisory positions, and dealt quite exclusively with questions of methods and administration, the classroom teachers did not relax their efforts. They continued to appeal for a department of their own.

This was granted the next year. The Department of Classroom Teachers held its first session at the annual convention in St. Paul, July 8, 1914. Thus it was given official recognition by the N. E. A., as a body trying to solve its own special problems.

From the very outset, the Department declared its aims to be, "To encourage higher qualifications for entrance into the teaching profession; to promote teacher participation in school management; to aid in securing adequate salaries, sound retirement systems, tenure, and such other improvement in conditions as will enable teachers properly to function as a vital factor in educational progress." Some years later it added: "To promote, encourage, and assist organizations of classroom teachers and to promote cooperation among such organizations and the members thereof."

From 1914 to 1922, the formative years of the organization, it had no appropriation from the National Education Association with the exception of twenty-five dollars allowed for stationery and postage. The income of the Association during those years was very uncertain. However, with the reorganization of the N. E. A. on a delegate basis in 1920, a new policy was adopted. Under President Ethel Gardner of Milwaukee, a constitution was adopted in 1922 at Boston which greatly widened the scope of the Department's activities. A request for a budget of five thousand dollars was made. This sum was appropriated by the N. E. A. and the work as outlined was begun. The constitution provided for conferences held in all parts of the country and this has become one of the major activities of the officers. Through this means teachers who are unable to attend the N. E. A. convention have the opportunity of discussing their problems with the officers and are often successful in finding a solution.

The Department began also to send its officers to the midwinter meeting in order that they might keep in touch with the objectives of the Department of Superintendence so that their attitude would be an enlightened and co-operative one. At this time a conference is held for classroom teachers in attendance for the discussion of vital problems.

From 1914 to 1922, the work of the Department was confined largely to preparing the programs for the annual convention. As there were no financial resources for use in carrying on independent studies, the writer, who was president during five of those early years, aimed to excel in program making. The purpose was to interest educators in the possibilities of this Department, and to bring home to each group the truth that the success of all was dependent on the success of each. One who is interested in the history of the Department may discover from the pages of the N. E. A. Annual Proceedings that the names of some of the ablest educators in the nation are to be found in these early programs. It will be seen also that the Department has held steadily to the field laid out for itself at the beginning.

The work of the Department is carried on by its officers, its standing committees, and the generous volunteer work of many of its members. The headquarters staff of the National Education Association is ready to assist at all times. The joint editing of the *News Bulletin* of the Department by

Agnes Winn, director of Classroom Service, and Daisy Lord, Eastern regional director, has been a most valued contribution. The numbers sent out this school year have been especially noted for their excellence.

In 1926, the Department issued its first Yearbook. It contained a statement of the aims and policies of the Department and a discussion of large teacher problems which furnished a basis for work which followed. In 1927, *The Child and His Teacher* was given over to the study of the attitudes, and the appreciation of child life. In 1928, *Problems and Opportunities in Teaching* attempted to point the way thru teacher welfare to pupil welfare. In 1929, *Creative Teaching and Professional Problems* described actual classroom procedure. In 1930, *Teaching as a Creative Art* was intended to be a continuation of the theme of 1929 in response to the requests of many teachers. The 1931 volume dealt with *The Economic Welfare of Teachers*, a study which is of the utmost value at the present time. In 1932, *The Classroom Teacher and Character Education* attracted wide attention. The present Yearbook Committee is at work on a very timely subject dealing with effective publicity for education. The foregoing important research activities involve large expenditures which have brought an enlargement of the appropriations of the N. E. A. for the work, the present budget being \$10,100.

Because of consciousness on the part of teachers that the Department is vital to their interests, the organization has grown most rapidly. With every passing year it has increased its usefulness, and has amply justified the faith of its leaders in the growth of its power to contribute to progressive thought. It is helping to win for teachers the standing and place to which they are entitled thru their important work in the field of education.

SUMMARY OF THE FIRST PRELIMINARY REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ACADEMIC FREEDOM

KARL GUENTHER, MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, YPSILANTI, MICH.

Academic freedom has two chief aspects: the freedom of the student to learn; and second, the freedom of the teacher.

It is a right which it is particularly important to preserve and extend in a time which, like the present, is one of rapid social change. Freedom facilitates peaceful and orderly social adaptation to changing conditions of life.

The American Association of University Professors has championed this cause since 1915. As a consequence it has revealed and measurably rectified shameful abuses in the profession of college teaching. A similar and greater task confronts the teachers in the other branches of the profession.

The committee authorized by the Department at the 1932 convention approaches the subject with an awareness of the responsibilities as well as the advantages of academic freedom. It seeks greater freedom than at present exists with a view to enhancing the usefulness of the teaching profession. Freedom is sought, not for the benefit of the injudicious and the ill-prepared,

but for the competent, professionally trained and professionally minded teacher, and with a view to enlisting the interest of all teachers in higher standards for the profession.

The freedom to learn seems, at present, to be a matter of great importance to teachers who are themselves students. Especially important is it that teachers should be able to study the problems confronting them as members of organized groups of teachers. To this end the committee recommends the establishment by local or regional teachers associations of "study-your-own-problems" classes which may study, for college credit and under an instructor selected by the group, the problems which are confronting the group. The committee will aid those who are interested in the organization of such classes and has available an outline for such courses which may be had by interested teachers.¹

Turning to a consideration of the freedom of the teachers two additional elements in the problem present themselves. The first involves the right of the teacher to expound the truth and knowledge as at present known without constraint except that which is imposed by the professional obligation to be judicious, to present fairly all sides of controversial questions, to avoid making unverified statements and using intemperate modes of expression. Violations of these professional rights and obligations of teachers should be judged in the first instance, not by lay groups, but by bodies composed of members of the teaching profession. To this end it is important that steps be taken to create such judicial bodies.

A second element in the teachers' freedom is the right of extra-mural utterance and action. Subject to the obligations mentioned above teachers should have the same rights of free speech which other citizens enjoy. Their conduct, outside of school, should be subject to few, if any, external controls to which other citizens are not subjected. They should be free, furthermore, to support actively, if they choose, organized movements which they consider to be in the public interest.

An important special aspect of the general problem of academic freedom is involved in connection with the activities of teachers in teachers associations. The policy of these associations, it is believed, is often unduly influenced by the administrative staff. By virtue of their often arbitrary control over rating salary, transfer, tenure and recommendations, administrators hold a powerful whip over teachers which can be used to penalize those who dissent from their policies.

In consequence it is often difficult to know whether the policies of an association represent the considered opinions and wishes of the rank and file or whether the policies merely reflect the wishes of administrators.

A partial escape from this situation has often and successfully been sought thru the creation of organizations whose membership is limited to classroom teachers.

¹ For further information in regard to these classes communicate with Miss Rena Rockwell, 364 W. Clinton St., Elmira, N. Y.

Altho not necessarily due to abuses of authority it is probable that the influence of classroom teachers has been very small in the affairs of state teachers associations.

A study of the California Teachers' Association in a recent year showed that only about one-third of the governing body were classroom teachers and further that this group, which constitutes about 95 percent of the profession, had only 22.5 percent representation on committees and only 14.25 percent representation among the chairmen of committees. A similar study of the Michigan Education Association in 1932 showed only 13.2 percent classroom teacher representation on the most important standing committees and 6.25 percent representation on the board of directors.

Where the exceptional influence of administrators in teacher association affairs is due to subtle pressure or open coercion or other abuses of authority it should be checked. To note cases of this kind and to take steps to correct them should be a special responsibility of the Department's committee.

In attempting to maintain and extend academic freedom the Department of Classroom Teachers may meet its professional responsibilities by contributing as effectively as it may to the building up of a public opinion both within and without the teaching profession which will appreciate and defend academic freedom as one of the important liberties to be cherished by a free people. In connection with this work the committee has prepared a bibliography which should be of value.

A second course is to develop judicial bodies within the profession which will be competent to hear and to pass judgment upon cases involving academic freedom.

A third procedure is to take steps to insure that those teachers who have unjustly been dismissed in connection with cases of this kind shall have special help extended to them in securing new positions.

As a first step towards these ends the committee requests the Department of Classroom Teachers to authorize the committee, in its discretion, to investigate, in such ways as it deems proper, cases which seem to involve academic freedom and also to authorize it to take steps to secure, when it seems expedient, the creation of a joint council on academic freedom composed of representatives of organizations which have manifested an interest in the problem.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

Second Session, Thursday Afternoon, July 6, 1933

The annual business meeting was convened at 2:25 p. m. in the North Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel. Mrs. F. Blanche Preble, the president, presided and opened the meeting with a brief report of her activities for the year, expressing her appreciation of the opportunity that had been given her to serve the Department. She said in part:

"I have kept as busy as time and money and strength would permit and have visited 35 groups of teachers, held conferences with 35 groups of teachers in 37 cities

and 11 states. I know now why the people who were charter members of our Department have always said and have continued to say that the conference work is by far the most important part of the work of the Department. I also know why they have always insisted it shall be adequately financed because I see more than ever before what these personal contacts mean, not only that the officers get to know the teachers and the teachers get to know the officers so that when they come to the convention we can join hands and work together, but because the officers in visiting the different sections and communities of the country can understand the problems so much better than in any other way. So I am very sure the Department is going to continue that part of the work, the holding of conferences."

Mrs. Preble then called attention to her complete report in the printed *Official Report* of the Department, copies of which were distributed at the meeting, and announced that no yearbook would be published in 1933. She then recommended the following order of business which was unanimously adopted: (1) president's report; (2) election of officers; (3) report of Committee on Academic Freedom; (4) report of Committee on Resolutions; (5) report of Yearbook Committee; (6) reports of officers.

Before proceeding with the election, announcement was made of the annual dinner to be held that evening in the Grand Ballroom of the Stevens and Mr. Guenther announced that he would like to have the presidents or other officers of state departments of classroom teachers meet with him immediately at the close of the session. Frances G. Harden of Chicago, was then asked to take the chair and explain a plan of election procedure which she had worked out and which was adopted by the executive board. The plan was to be given a trial and then whatever changes seemed necessary were to be made before final adoption for another year. Viola Kelley of San Francisco and Emily Tarbell of Syracuse, N. Y., were appointed judges of the election and Josephine Wilson of Dallas, Texas, and M. E. Hurst of Tulsa, Okla. were appointed clerks.

The following nominations were made: president, Faye Read of Pueblo, Colo. nominated by Dorothy Hall of Pueblo and seconded by C. W. Jackson of California and others; vicepresident, Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl of Minneapolis nominated by Harriet Scofield of Minneapolis and seconded by Daisy Brown of Stillwater, Minn., and others; secretary, Mrs. Mary D. Barnes of Elizabeth, N. J., nominated by Agnes Mathews of Roselle, N. J., seconded by Mildred Hardester of Salem, N. J., and others; western regional director, Albert Shaw of Los Angeles nominated by Helen Holt of Alameda, Calif., seconded by Rena Rockwell of Elmira, N. Y., and others. The nominations were then declared closed and the balloting took place according to Miss Harden's plan. The results of the election follow: president, Faye Read; vicepresident, Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl; secretary, Mary D. Barnes; western regional director, Albert M. Shaw. Other regional directors are, Daisy Lord of Waterbury, Conn. and Mary Ralls of Kansas City, Mo.

Mrs. Preble then recognized Karl W. Guenther of the Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti, chairman of the Committee on Academic Freedom, authorized last year, who presented a summary of a preliminary report. Before presenting it, Mr. Guenther said: "The interest in the subject of academic freedom has grown a good deal during the last six years. In consulting with your president with regard to the matter of creating the committee, it was felt it would be wise to try to get one which was representative, as nearly as possible, of the classroom teachers thruout the country. For that reason the officers of the various state departments of classroom teachers were asked to name a representative to serve on this committee, the point of that method of selection being that we wanted to get people who would be representative of the classroom teachers of the states so far as possible, and, secondly, to get a wide distribution of opinion from people who had the confidence of their own constituent groups."

After reading the summary the chairman moved the adoption of the full report and it was duly seconded. A lengthy discussion of the report then took place centering mainly around the following declaration: "Their conduct (teachers), outside of school, should be subject to few, if any, external controls to which other citizens are not subjected." Mrs. Johanna Lindlof of New York City moved to amend it by substituting the word "no" for "few, if any," and it was seconded by D. K. Stewart of Raleigh, N. C. Among those who took part in the discussion were: Mrs. Lindlof, Mr. Immel of California, Christine Jacobsen and Gertrude Mallory of Los Angeles, Miss Kent, Mr. Wright, Hester Smith of Denver, Mr. Stager of California, Sara Fahey of New York City, Robert Keenan of Chicago.

A motion to refer the amendment back to the committee was lost and the amendment presented by Mrs. Lindlof was voted on and carried. After a discussion as to whether the entire report should be adopted or just the summary which had been placed in the hands of all present it was the general opinion that the vote should be taken on the summary. Mr. Guenther stated that he was willing to accept this change. It was then voted to adopt the summary as amended which authorizes the committee to continue its work and to investigate cases which seem to involve academic freedom in consultation with the officers of the Department.

The next order of business was the report of the resolutions committee by the chairman, Anna Thompson of Kansas City. After the adoption of two amendments the report was accepted as given on page 350. Reports of the officers followed. Each one spoke briefly and those interested in reading their complete reports were referred to the printed *Official Report*.

Miss Harden then presented a matter which she felt should be of interest to every classroom teacher, the proposed amendments to the N. E. A. bylaws which were introduced at the Atlantic City meeting. These provide for a reduction in the number of ex-officio delegates to the Assembly from 156 to 16 for the purpose of bringing about greater democracy in the business of the Association. She stated that as it had been suggested that the question be postponed for another year she would like to know the feeling of the Department relative to it. It was moved by Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl and seconded that Miss Harden go ahead and present the amendments on Friday morning. All classroom teacher delegates were urged to remain thru the Assembly session in order to vote on this important matter and Miss Jacobsen of Los Angeles recommended that an announcement concerning the amendments also be made at the dinner that evening.

Mrs. Gilligan of Chicago then spoke of the splendid leadership of Mrs. Preble as president of the Department and asked that a vote of thanks be given to her for her untiring work. A hearty vote was given. Eula Hunter of Fort Worth, Texas, a former president, expressed her appreciation to the officers who have carried on in such a fine way this year, and especially to Mrs. Preble for the work which she has done.

A brief discussion took place relative to the N. E. A. and the Chicago teachers as to what had been done to help the situation. Miss Kemp of Los Angeles expressed the view that definite steps had been taken by the N. E. A. in support of the teachers basing her statements on extensive correspondence she had in her possession. Some questioned her about her information but as the hour was late the discussion was brought to a close by the following statement by Mrs. Lindlof: "I believe if you want to have the N. E. A. do something for the Chicago teachers we should wholeheartedly support the resolution which I believe will be submitted to the Representative Assembly on Friday morning calling upon the President and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to extend aid to localities which are in need of aid to maintain the birthright of the children in the educational line. I believe it should have our wholehearted support, and that is the greatest help we could give."

The meeting adjourned at 5:30 o'clock.

Annual Banquet

The annual banquet was held in the Grand Ballroom of the Stevens, Thursday, July 6, at 6 p. m. with Mrs. F. Blanche Preble of Chicago, presiding. Nearly eight hundred guests were in attendance. Among the speakers were Joseph Rosier, president of the National Education Association, William J. Bogan, superintendent of the Chicago schools, Francis G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction for Illinois, and Margaret Haley, business representative of the Chicago Teachers' Federation. A musical comedy, "A Century of Progress in Teacher Training," was given by the Chicago teachers.

Resolutions

The Department reaffirms its stand on many questions coming up in former years and expresses its opinion on the vital problems confronting the teachers of the nation at the present time.

Entrance requirements—We affirm our previous endorsement of higher qualifications for certification of teachers in order to raise the professional status of classroom teachers and to improve the teaching service.

Professional spirit—We urge that all classroom teachers participate actively in local, state, and national teacher organizations. We believe that in teacher-training courses, instruction should be given in the proper relationships of teachers to their professional organizations and in the ethics of the profession. We also believe that teachers should take an active part in civic and community affairs.

Training in civic and economic responsibility—We urge that all training schools for teachers include courses acquainting their students with presentday civic and economic conditions, thus developing leadership in solving the financial problems of the schools.

Rating—We approve constructive rating of teachers but we believe every teacher should be given an exact copy of her rating card in order that she may correct any apparent weaknesses and we disapprove the basing of salaries upon rating. We also endorse reciprocal rating, believing that supervisors and principals should be rated by classroom teachers and the combined findings be turned over to the board of education.

Teacher load—We stand firmly against increasing the teacher load as a means of retrenchment in this emergency in education. We believe it would redound much more to the welfare of the children to curtail, as a temporary measure, such activities as a curriculum department, research department, student counseling department, thus releasing those workers for classroom instruction rather than to overburden teachers to the point where effective teaching is impossible.

Tenure—We continue to favor a sound law which provides for an indefinite tenure following a sufficiently long probationary period. We believe that a committee of classroom teachers should participate in decisions which involve the dismissal of classroom teachers.

Retirement laws—We continue to endorse legislation providing for reasonable and financially sound retirement laws in which the state participates with the teachers.

Cumulative sick leave—We approve of a sick leave of sufficient length that the health and the welfare of the pupils are conserved. We believe that the days not used each year of the number granted should be allowed to accumulate to be used in case of a prolonged illness on the part of a teacher.

Single salary schedule—We reaffirm our belief in the principle of equal salary for equal service, training experience, and responsibility. We believe that all teachers whose services are satisfactory should be given a salary increase each year until they have reached the maximum salary.

Teacher participation in shaping school policies—We urge that teachers be given opportunities to assist in shaping school policies, and that whatever policy concerns the school as a whole should be the result of concerted thought and effort on the part of the entire faculty.

Equal opportunities—We believe that women whether married or single should have the same opportunities in the teaching profession as men, and that no discrimination in salary should be made when the preparation, the load carried and the responsibilities are the same.

Professional improvement—We reiterate our belief in freedom for teachers in their choice of subjects in the summer sessions of colleges and universities, but desire no curtailment of the broadening influence of wide educational training.

Sabbatical leave—We reaffirm our belief that a leave of absence for study and travel should be granted teachers periodically in order that they may return with enlarged vision and renewed energy.

Simplification of reports and records—Realizing that "the child in the schoolroom is the object of the school," we ask that classroom teachers be permitted to give more of their time and efforts to the child and less to the keeping of complicated reports and records. We believe that the latter should be reduced to the minimum for efficiency and that all duplications of records should be avoided.

Sources of larger revenue—We recommend that every classroom organization form a committee to study the tax situation and disseminate information regarding other sources of revenue to take the place of the antiquated property tax on which our schools are now dependent.

Welfare of teachers—Mutual benefit associations—We approve of the organization of mutual benefit associations in each large school system.

Hospitalization plan—We endorse a plan for the hospitalization of the teachers in a system when the need arises.

Credit unions—We favor the establishment of credit unions in all school systems large enough to support them in order that teachers may be protected from exorbitant rates of interest and to be mutually helpful.

Publicity—We endorse the use of the radio and the press in interpreting educational policies and problems to the public.

Illiteracy—We endorse the campaign to stamp out illiteracy in America, and pledge our assistance in the effort to have every adult in our nation possess the equivalent of a grammar-school education.

Child labor—We favor an amendment to the federal Constitution which will permit the enactment of a national child labor law in order that every American child may have an equal opportunity for an education.

World Federation of Education Associations—We approve the activities of this Association and endorse its program for world peace, friendship, and understanding, and urge that teachers actively cooperate to bring about the realization of these aims.

Service of teachers—We believe the "laborer is worthy of his hire" and that when funds are exhausted teachers should not be asked or expected to teach without pay. People must be made aware that the problem of educating their children is theirs, and that resources for carrying on this essential function of the state must be found, just as funds are raised for road building or any other desired services.

Service of Chicago teachers—The teachers of the nation express to the Chicago teachers and other teachers similarly situated their admiration and respect for the loyalty, devotion, and fortitude which they have shown in the trying ordeal through which they have passed, and we deplore and condemn the political tactics which have resulted in such a condition of affairs.

Local hospitality—We express our sincere appreciation to the classroom teachers and administrative staff of the Chicago schools and to all those in the community and state whose courtesies and hospitality have contributed so greatly to our comfort and happiness during this convention.

CONSTITUTION

(Adopted at Boston, Mass., July, 1922. Amended at Oakland, Calif., July, 1923, Atlanta, Ga., July, 1929, Los Angeles, Calif., July, 1931, and Atlantic City, N. J., June, 1932.)

ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this department shall be the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—OBJECTS AND PURPOSES

SECTION 1. To encourage higher qualifications for entrance into the teaching profession; to promote teacher participation in school management; to aid in securing adequate salaries, sound retirement systems, tenure, and such other improvement in conditions as will enable teachers properly to function as a vital factor in educational progress.

SECTION 2. To promote, encourage, and assist organizations of classroom teachers and to promote cooperation among such organizations and the members thereof.

SECTION 3. To cooperate with parent-teacher associations and other civic bodies having educational objectives, in order to secure better community understanding and appreciation of the problems and the value of the public schools.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

Members of the National Education Association who are employed as classroom teachers and all members of classroom teacher organizations acting as officers or agents of such organizations, whether employed as teachers or not, and retired classroom teachers, shall be eligible to membership in this Department, provided that no person shall be eligible to membership herein unless such person shall be a member of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS AND DUTIES

The officers of this Department shall be a president, a vicepresident, and a secretary, and all such officers shall be elected by a majority vote of the members present at the annual meeting of the Department. The officers shall serve for a term of one year from the date of their election and until their successors are elected, and shall perform the usual duties pertaining to the respective offices which they hold and such other duties as may be imposed upon them by this constitution and the bylaws of the Department. It shall be the special duty of the president of the Department to prepare a program for the annual meeting of the Department by and with the advice and consent of the executive committee and advisory council. On the expiration of his term of office as president he shall automatically become a member of the Executive Committee for the ensuing year.

ARTICLE V—EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

SECTION 1. *Election*—The president, the vicepresident, the secretary, the retiring president, and three members of the Department, to be called regional directors, who shall represent three different sections of the country, to be elected in the manner hereinafter provided, shall constitute the executive committee. Elections to the executive committee shall be made by the Department at the meeting at which this constitution is adopted. The candidate receiving the highest number of votes shall serve on the executive committee for a term of three years; the candidate receiving the next highest number of votes shall serve on the executive committee for a term of two years; and the candidate receiving the next highest number of votes shall serve on the executive committee for a term of one year. Annually thereafter, the Department shall elect one member of the executive committee in place of the member whose term expires and the members of the executive committee so chosen shall thereafter serve for a term of three years.

SECTION 2. *Persons Eligible*—No person shall be eligible to office in this Department who is not, at the time of election, regularly engaged in some phase of classroom teaching.

Should any officer of this Department leave the profession to engage in other business, his office shall be declared vacant and shall be filled in the same manner provided for other vacancies.

Should any officer of this Department accept an administrative position, or retire from active teaching, such officer shall serve only until the next succeeding annual election, and any vacancies so occasioned shall be filled by election at the annual meeting.

Provided, however, that this section shall not be construed to apply to any person holding office in this Department at the time this section is adopted; but any such person shall serve until the expiration of the period for which he was elected.

SECTION 3. *Duties*—The executive committee shall assist the president in preparing the annual programs and shall perform such other duties as may be imposed upon it by the Department. The executive committee shall have power to employ an assistant secretary and such other employees as it may deem necessary to carry on the work of the Department, and, subject to the ratification of the Department, to fix the terms for which such employees shall be employed and the salaries to be paid to such employees and to prescribe the duties of such employees, in addition to the duties imposed upon such employees by this constitution and any bylaws adopted by the Department. The executive committee shall have power to designate centers at which regional conferences of the Department shall be held. The executive committee shall conduct the business of the Department in the interim between the annual meetings of the Department. The executive committee shall be authorized to fill all vacancies in its own membership. All such interim appointments shall be filled by election at the next annual election.

SECTION 4. *Budget*—On or before the first day of June in each year, the executive committee (of this Department) shall prepare and submit to the executive committee, the board of directors, and the representative assembly of the National Education Association, thru the secretary of the Association, a budget setting forth the proposed expenditures to be made by this Department during the ensuing year and the purposes for which such proposed expenditures are to be made, except that the executive committee shall have the power to reapportion such funds when necessary. Such budget shall set forth a statement of the estimated receipts of this Department during the ensuing year from membership dues levied under the provisions of Section 9 of Article V of the bylaws of the National Education Association, and a statement of the amount of money estimated to be necessary to be appropriated from the funds of the Association for this Department for the ensuing year. It shall be the further duty of the executive committee to see that the funds so set aside and so appropriated shall be disbursed for the purposes of this Department in the manner provided for in the budget.

ARTICLE VI—CONFERENCES

SECTION 1. *Purposes*—Conferences shall be held by the members of the executive committee of the Department with local organizations of classroom teachers or with other groups of teachers for the purpose of (a) discussing, formulating, and carrying into effect the policies and programs of the Department, (b) assisting local groups with their problems, and (c) stimulating interest in professional organization work. Former members of the executive committee, who are members of the Department, may be authorized by the executive committee to conduct conferences and perform other services for the Department.

SECTION 2. *Officers*—The officers of such conferences shall be a chairman and a secretary. Members of the executive committee and others authorized to conduct conferences shall send to the headquarters office of the National Education Association in Washington written reports of all such conferences, and a list of those held during the year shall be published in the Yearbook of the Department.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

The annual meeting of this Department shall be held at the same time and place as the annual meeting of the National Education Association, and shall consist of business sessions and such programs as may be authorized by the executive committee. Business sessions shall be open to classroom teachers only.

A conference of the officers, executive committee, advisory council, and other members of the Department shall be held at the same time and place as the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. The president of the Department shall be charged with the duty of preparing a program for such conference.

ARTICLE VIII—AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the members present at the annual business meeting of the Department, provided notice in writing of such proposed amendment shall have been filed with the secretary of the Department at least sixty (60) days prior to such annual meeting and published in the issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association* next preceding the annual meeting of the Association, and in the issue of the *News Bulletin* of this Department next preceding the annual meeting of the Department.

Department of Deans of Women

THE DEPARTMENT OF DEANS OF WOMEN (National Association of Deans of Women) associated itself with the National Education Association in 1918. Its meeting is first reported in *Proceedings*, 1918: 391-417.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Agnes Ellen Harris, Dean of Women, University of Alabama, University, Ala.; *First Vicepresident*, Harriett M. Allyn, Academic Dean, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.; *Second Vicepresident*, Jessie Coope, Assistant Principal, and Dean of Girls, McKinley Technical High School, Washington, D. C.; *Secretary*, Sara Norris, Dean of Women, State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn.; *Treasurer*, Elsie M. Smithies, Assistant Principal, University of Chicago High School, Chicago, Ill.; *Headquarters Secretary*, Gwladys W. Jones, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and records of its meetings will be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings*, as follows:

1919:393-426	1923:621-636	1927:391-418	1931:393-413
1920:357-364	1924:500-536	1928:353-374	1932:337-356
1921:407-420	1925:403-449	1929:369-390	
1922:693-793	1926:425-457	1930:309-330	

HELPING THEM TO STAND ON OUR SHOULDERS

ADA L. COMSTOCK, PRESIDENT, RADCLIFFE COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

My subject, I fear, like the introduction which has been given me, promises more than the speaker will perform.

I am reminded of a story which I heard Harry Emerson Fosdick tell the other day about a church which had the custom of holding yearly a strawberry festival. It appears that last June, in the church notice, the announcement was made: "The annual strawberry festival will be held on June 15 at the parsonage, admission twenty-five cents. Note: In view of the depression, prunes will be served."

In view of a consistent and steady and permanent mental depression, I fear prunes may be served tonight, but I had an idea in my mind when I chose my subject. It was based on a picture—a recollection which I had of a day in Paris some thirty years ago. It was in the fall of 1903, and the King and Queen of Italy were being entertained in Paris with high festival and pageantry. I shall never forget how beautiful Paris was or what a revelation I had of the taste of the French nation in the decoration of a city and in the reception of royal guests.

One day, one Sunday afternoon, the King and Queen were to be taken to the left bank of the river for some purpose, perhaps to visit the tomb of Napoleon. I went to see the procession, taking with me a little boy seven years of age. When we got to the bridge over the Seine, where we thought we might see the procession, the crowd was so great that he could see nothing at all. He perched on my shoulder and saw something of it, and I recorded in my diary that my shoulder was very lame from holding Edmund up to see the procession. I thought of that experience as I was considering the subject on which I shall talk tonight, because I suppose, in a sense, it expresses our object in education, the function which education performs in society, and our own personal ambition as to what we should like to do for the young people who come under our care.

I suppose that just now with the world in the state in which it is, we desire more than ever to give those in our charge the benefit of our experience. We have ceased congratulating ourselves just now on the control which the world has been able to take of the physical forces of nature, the control of famine, the control of disease, the control of so many of those disasters which used to sweep over humanity, and we realize that now a new control must be established over the forces of society. These are the economic forces—war, crime—the conditions which come about in a great and complicated society like ours; and we desire, as we have never desired before, to be able to pass on what little wisdom we have, what bitter experience has taught us, to those who are following us; and we wonder by what means we can help them to see farther than we have seen and to do better than we have done. We, every one, are asking it, and we who are known by the obnoxious term "educators" are wondering most of all what we can do.

It seems to me that there are certain very clear essentials which we must have in mind in helping the younger generation to stand or perch on our shoulders, and one of those essentials is that our own feet should be firmly planted and should be planted on the earth, not on a chair, not on a platform, not on dogma which has been unthinkingly accepted, but on the earth which we have come to know ourselves thru our own living and our own experience, the mud and the rocks and the snow of which we know by having tried to walk over them and thru them; the paths and the highways of which we have discovered for ourselves; the mountains that we have learned by ascending them, and the valleys that we have learned by going down into them, and in this state, I may say, the blizzards in which we have sometimes lost our way, but thru which we have finally come.

I know that I date myself irretrievably by quoting Kipling and yet I remember what I used to read about Tomlinson. You will recall that when he was asked to prove either his virtues or his sins, I forget which—"Now this I have read, quoth Tomlinson, and this has been noised abroad, and this I took from a Belgian Book on the word of a dead French lord." We can't be Tomlinsons if we are going to be of assistance to the oncoming generation.

Some people think that school and college life ought to be made more nearly a part of the adult life of the time, that a good share of our effort in school and college ought to be devoted to making the students realize current conditions and understand the problems of the day. I think there is something in that, but not everything because, after all, school life and college life are very precious periods in that they are set aside from the labor, the turmoil of daily life, and to try too much to bring the market place and the forum and the responsibilities of adult life into the school and the college is to make a mistake. It must be thru adults and especially thru their teachers that students make their contacts with life; and for that reason it is particularly essential that their teachers themselves should know life and should know this earth on which we live. We are the transmitters, and our contacts ought to be with the thing itself.

And another thing which seems to me one of the essentials, if we are to help them stand on our shoulders, is that our mental bodies should be in condition, exercised and developed and fit. I am confident that no static person can be really a teacher.

We hear in colleges a good deal of criticism of the appointment of teachers who are devoted to research on the ground that often they lack the teaching gift. It is quite true that they often lack it, but a really good research person, somebody who is enthusiastically engaged in a piece of study on his own account, has something certainly to give students who are advanced, who are eager, and who are willing to dig a little bit for the gold which he has to offer them; whereas, the good teacher who has not refreshed his mind and whose mind has ceased to grow has sometimes almost nothing to give. I say, beware of yourself if you have the teaching gift, because you may be led to substitute it sometimes for the learning which should be transmitted thru

that gift, but which may sink lower and lower until the fountain is dry and you have nothing but the technic of teaching to offer your students.

It is pleasant to speak in this state and in this place of the necessity of constant growth on the part of the teacher, because it was in this state that I came to know a woman who seemed to me to exemplify most strikingly that particular characteristic. Some of you knew her. Her name was Maria Sanford and her name is still great in Minnesota. She began to teach when she was sixteen years old and she taught, so far as I know, without a year of absence until she was retired from her teaching at the University at the age of seventy. She fought poverty and discouragement and every kind of difficulty which could confront a human being. She never lost her intellectual appetite; she never ceased to study; she had an enthusiasm—an intellectual enthusiasm which I have rarely seen equalled. I remember asking her when she was seventy-five years old whether she had had a good year. "I never had a better year," she said, "I have discovered the Flemish painters this year; I never knew before how great they were." She died when she was, I think, eighty years old at the close of a day she described to someone as the happiest day in her life. Now, in certain respects, as a teacher of a specific subject, she was not so good as other people whom I have known, but she gave her students, all of them, the impression of a mind which never ceased to develop and for which there were always surprises, for which the world was always full of wonder and of a mind and a character developed steadily thruout her life. The athletic quality of mind is something which we must have if those who follow us are to stand on our shoulders.

Tho we are supposed to stand somewhat apart from active living, it seems to me that we are responsible for what is seen from our shoulders, that we cannot divorce ourselves from responsibility for what happens in the city in which we live, in the state in which we live, in the country in which we live, and in the world in which we live, and that we owe it to ourselves and to our students to take some part in the life of our times. How can we teach them, for instance, any high conception of citizenship if they see around them corruption and inefficiency, the disregard of law, and the kind of frivolity toward public service which make that opera which many of you have seen and heard, "Of Thee I Sing," much less of a travesty than we wish it were. The state of the world itself is a part of our responsibility. You may remember that Sir Walter Raleigh, that famous teacher of English at Oxford, said once in regard to teaching: "It's no good making other people do things; you must do them yourself and trust to infection to spread it." And the first duty of a teacher, as it seems to me, concerns what he makes of himself and what he does in the world in which he lives.

Well, in a way, what I have just said applies to everybody who hopes to be a good citizen and who hopes to make the world better for those who are to follow after, but it isn't enough, of course, for us who are gathered here tonight to try to be strong and to be helpful and to let young people, if they will, scramble up to our shoulders. To help them do the scrambling is our particular profession—a profession which has its principles, its meth-

ods, its technic; and it is of those principles and methods and technic that I suppose we ought to speak.

It has seemed to me, in spite of certain disquieting action which has been taken by state legislatures, in the last week or so, that our profession was never more esteemed than it is at the present time. We all know what efforts are being made by parents to keep their children in school and college, how the education of their children is the last thing on which they are willing to economize, in which they are willing to retrench. We know how many people believe in these troublous times that education must be the way out, and we know how many people outside of our own ranks are resolved that whatever else suffers, the quality and the quantity of education in this country shall not suffer. And yet, of course, on the other hand, education was never more challenged. Certain groups of people in our colleges are particularly challenged; the economists are suffering under the same blight which has fallen upon business men, the leaders of business, and we know that a good many people think it strange that after America has done so much for the education of its people, we should, in crises, show so little knowledge of how to behave wisely and advisedly.

Another story of a church notice comes to my mind. It read in this way: "Sermon by the pastor; subject—'Spiritual Gains Resulting from the Depression.' Soprano solo by Mrs. Brown—'Search Me.' " A good many people have felt that the gains which were supposed to result from education in this country are well described by the title of Mrs. Brown's solo. People are dissatisfied, of course, with what education has done and is doing, but no one is so dissatisfied as we ourselves, and some of us are discouraged.

I was talking not long ago with a man known to many of you who has been head for many years of a well-known college settlement and who has also been one of the heads of a well-known school. He told me that he was old enough now to have seen the pupils whom he had known in the school and in the settlement grow up and take their places in life, and he said it discouraged him very much to find that as far as he was able to judge they were little better, if any, than those who had had fewer privileges, who had not had their experience. It seemed to him that they didn't justify, finally, in their lives the effort which had gone into molding them.

My own impression is very different from that: I am old enough, too, now, to have seen the students whom I have known at the University of Minnesota, and at Smith and at Radcliffe, go out and take their places in life. Perhaps I wear too rosy spectacles, but it has seemed to me that they and others like them were thinking a little more clearly, were acting a little more helpfully than those who had not had the same kind of opportunity. And yet, no one of us is content. We all realize that we could do better than we do, and we all hope to do better in the future than we have done. It is right for us, I think, to consider our situation and to ask ourselves whether our ways, our methods, our principles, are valid.

My own view of our present situation is something like this: I think that just at this time some of the limitations under which we have suffered are

being stripped away. Certain artificial restrictions on women, for instance, have disappeared in the last twenty or twenty-five years. The outward restrictions are nearly gone. Women have full rights of citizenship; almost all occupations are open to them; the inward limitations are yielding. I think that qualities of mind, rugged qualities of character, physical strength and skill, are much more respected among women, much more desired by them than they used to be. I think there is still a considerable distance to go in that regard. Fathers still say to me, "My little girl is spoiled, but that is what little girls are for"; and I feel that girls still need less cushioning than they get. I think that they need to be laughed at more than they are. I think the qualities of sportsmanship still need to be asked of them more than they are, more than they have been in the past; and nobody believes more firmly than I that they will meet every such challenge which is given them.

The artificial social distinctions, I think, are disappearing in these times and are giving those of us who are now in schools and colleges a great opportunity. There is less extravagance; there is less emphasis on distinctions which show themselves in segregation in clubs and sororities and cliques. There is a much freer field, as it seems to me, in which to work than we have had for many years.

Miss Raymond said to me a while ago that almost all discussion of school methods, college methods, was strikingly lacking in the "how." We all know what we desire to do, what our aspirations are, what our ideals are, but how to achieve them, how to bring them about—that is so difficult.

In discussing improvement that might be made in schools and colleges, we sometimes talk about the subjectmatter and say that we must have a complete change of subjectmatter in the curriculum of the school, the curriculum of the college. I, myself, have never been one to shed blood over curriculum. I have never been able to get up much excitement over whether there should or should not be Latin or whether there should or should not be so much mathematics, or so much of this or so much of that. I am a conservative person, however, and I am distrustful of choices made by students which are based merely on the preference of the moment, and there are certain things which I believe that the content of the curriculum in school or in college ought to yield. One of those things is a sense of the reality and the stubbornness of fact; and certain rather humdrum subjects appear to me to yield a sense of that kind of reality.

I heard the other day of a little boy who belongs to one of those clubs in which topics are discussed on the merits of which a vote is taken when the discussion is concluded. A friend of his met him on the street and said, "Johnny, what did you discuss at your club last night?" "Well," he said, "this was the subject we talked about: 'Is there a God?' but we didn't vote on it."

One thing which the curriculum ought to yield is the sense that there are some subjects on which you cannot vote, that are not matters of opinion—that there are some things which appear to be indubitably so and which have to be reckoned with. And another thing which the curriculum ought to yield

is the opportunity for the weighing and the balancing of evidence, this side and that side, pro and con. And, of course, there should be opportunity in the curriculum for the play of the imagination, and there are certain tools for future use which must be provided.

Now those ends, if they are sought, are likely to bring about a course of study which, so far as subjectmatter is concerned, does not differ so amazingly from the course of study which we offer in most of our schools and colleges; but this I do think: that the mode of presentation of our subjectmatter requires a good deal of revision.

Certain subjects are playing a new part in the lives of our students—the languages, for example. When I was a young woman, languages were very largely a polite accomplishment or a means of obtaining a knowledge of the literature of foreign countries. They are still that, but they have become a much more important medium of communication with the people of other countries. Any of our youngsters who wish to make themselves citizens of the world, who wish to become members of international organizations, who hope to play a part in the settlement of the difficulties of the world, ought to have command of languages. All of us who go to international meetings are ashamed of our own inexpertness in the use of other tongues as compared with the women of Scandinavia, as compared with the women from Holland and the smaller European countries, as compared with women of almost any country except our own.

Languages as a tool, languages as a real means of expression, should be taught in our schools and in our colleges. When I was a young girl, we all had a great desire to learn to write. We regarded English as an art medium in which we hoped to acquire some proficiency. The literary magazine in school, in college, was an extremely important publication, and to be an editor of it was to stand on a pinnacle of fame. It isn't so now. At least, it isn't so in a great many institutions I know. The literary magazine is nonexistent or a struggling affair. The girl who writes best in the school isn't necessarily the one to whom all the others look up with the greatest admiration. There is a differentiation there, and as it seems to me, we need to teach English with that differentiation in mind. Our students, for the most part, are not so eager to write novels and poems and plays as they used to be, but they need English as they never needed it before for the defining of issues, as a tool of thought.

One who reads the general examinations in one of our fields of concentration at Radcliffe was telling me the other day that both at Harvard and at Radcliffe the contents of the examinations written now by our students was easily 100 percent better than it was ten years ago. He said they knew more; they had read more widely; they had a much greater command of fact; but he said that their mode of expression was easily 50 percent worse. They haven't been taught to use English as a tool of thought, as a means of making delicate discriminations. The teaching of English needs to be revised as to its aims and methods.

The social sciences are obviously more important as a part of the curriculum of school and college than they have ever been before. They are of the greatest importance, but there is one great danger in regard to them and that is that we shall try to use them as a means of indoctrination.

A book has been put on the market recently, which is the result in part of the work of a commission of the American Historical Association, on the teaching of the social sciences in the schools. It is called *A Charter of the Social Sciences*, and Charles Beard is the author.

It is an excellent book, and yet, one gets the impression from it that the social sciences offer a great opportunity for teaching attitudes toward social questions, for communicating a sense of values, and I think I agree with the critic of that book who wrote in this way after discussion with a group of his colleagues: "We do not believe that the social sciences on any level should be used consciously for the purposes of indoctrination or for the inculcation of standards, values, attitudes, no matter how generally acceptable or apparently desirable, and for this reason: in all probability, tomorrow will be just as different from today as today is from yesterday, and any attitudes and any standards which you may try to inculcate consciously, may easily be outworn before the time comes for their use. To make human relationships understandable, intelligible—that is the great function of the social sciences and for that purpose we cannot make too great use of them."

As for the method of teaching, I don't need to say today that it ought not to be cut and dried—that is not our danger; but perhaps it is necessary to remind ourselves that it is a *laissez faire* method which is perhaps too fashionable today.

I don't know whether you have had the experience which has been mine, of having a perfectly delightful class to come to which was a daily pleasure and in which the students seemed to be having an extremely good time, and then of realizing at the end of the year that no one of them had really gained anything in power and ability. It is the easiest thing in the world to deceive yourself and if you are enjoying the teaching of a class, to be oversanguine as to the results which your teaching is achieving; I am sure that all of us need constantly to be on our guard, to see that we are insisting on certain acquisition of fact, that it shall be precise, that it shall be accurate, that we shall not slide over details too easily at the same time that we are trying to stimulate thought and imagination.

An article which I read the other day defines in this way the aim of education: "The sense of the past, the sense of wonder, perspective and imagination, awareness, and power—these are the ends of education."

There is one thing which I think is absolutely certain in regard to teaching, and that is that it is a highly expensive process for the teacher. To arrive at such ends as those which I have just mentioned means inevitably that one must give the best treasure that one has of thought and of effort and of energy. There is no formula in the world, there is no method in the world, that takes the place of that. To give the student such treasures as those I have mentioned means that the teacher himself must spend himself to the

point of exhaustion. It is easy to say all this, to think of the students as if we could make them what we will, as if they were plastic in our hands, but, of course, they are not.

I spoke a while ago of a little boy in Paris who saw a procession. I'd like, in closing, to tell you about another little boy whom I saw last year in China. I was visiting the tomb of Sun Yat Sen in Nanking, and half way up the thousand steps that led to that tomb I saw a family group, a Chinese father and mother with a little fat Chinese boy about so high, in the brightly colored wadded robes that a Chinese child wears in the winter months. He was on his father's shoulder, and he was screaming at the top of his lungs, beating his father's head. At last his father, with a look of patience and resignation on his face put him down, and he proceeded quietly and amiably along without any further display of temper. What he wanted was to be on his own feet. And there are some of our students who never will perch on our shoulders, who prefer to make their own way. All of them who are worth anything sooner or later climb down and go up the steps on their own account. There is something baffling, disturbing about that, but there is something comforting about it, and I think if we reflect on it, it may do something to cure in us what I regard as the besetting sin in our profession—taking ourselves too seriously.

STUDENT ECONOMIC PROBLEMS AND THE COUNSELOR —WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO WOMEN STUDENTS

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When Esther Allen Gaw undertook her work as dean of women on our campus, she began by visualizing the job. Social adjustment, she concluded, is essentially and urgently the objective of all students whether men or women. And relative to this objective the major function of a dean is teaching. Counseling of students, if intelligently done, is teaching. Her idea of teaching, however, while including direct counseling, was farther reaching than that; it extended to the teaching of *teachers*, in other words, of counselors, who would thereupon apply what they had learned to teaching or counseling their own groups. Around this central conception of social adjustment as the main objective of students and of teaching as the function of the dean or counselor, Dean Gaw gradually evolved the activities and services which today constitute a going concern on our campus. Two of us, herself and myself, are the teaching members of the staff with a faculty rank: hers, professor of psychology, mine, associate professor of economics.

The work of a dean of women's office cannot, as you know, be divided off into water-tight compartments. Generally speaking, however, my function as an economist is to supervise existing economic developments in our work and largely to provide the initiative for further economic developments as they are seen to be needed; to conduct all economic research in the interest of students, which includes research designed to improve our efficiency in serving students, and to give a course paralleling the dean's three-credit

survey course, Student Psychological Problems and the Counselor. My three-credit survey course is called Student Economic Problems and the Counselor. These two courses are open to upper classmen and graduate students. In the spring we offer a very brief non-credit training period open to lower classmen who desire to become eligible in the fall to be what we call student assistants. In this brief period we try to get across to would-be student assistants some ideas as to sound, homely advice which they should get across—if they are to be really helpful—to new students, especially to freshmen.

First, let us glance at the three-credit survey course in Student Economic Problems. We start with the question, "What do women students, when they go to college, think they are there for, think is up to them?" Members of the class suggest this and that with the result that presently we have compiled quite a list of interests: good time, making a sorority, preparing to earn a living, acquiring culture (someone suggests acquiring a husband), and so on. But what, in the opinion of the counselors-to-be, are the fundamental interests of women students? Each one must arrive at some sort of answer if she is to evaluate sanely the problems of students. This implies her having a philosophy of educated young women. Each participant will be asked to attempt to formulate her philosophy. Meanwhile, in order to provoke discussion, disagreement, and thought, some tentative philosophy is put to them relative to educated young people in general. For example, this:

Educated young people are only a few years in college. All the remainder of their lives will be lived in the world. Is not the first question, then, not what is up to them in college but what is up to them in the world? Whatever that is, is that not what young people are in college to prepare themselves for? Tentatively, let us take it to be a proposition consisting of four life problems:

First, the problem—primal for all human beings—of existing is an economic problem: the inexorable urge for food, shelter, and clothing. Some means of livelihood must be sought by every one. If it is not a gainful occupation, it will be one of several other things: marriage, inheritance, borrowing, charity, prostitution, or robbing.

Second, the problem of human beings possessing reasonable intelligence is the problem of living. It, too, is essentially an economic problem, in the main a consumer's problem. It is the more or less fumbling effort of every person to achieve maximum satisfactions from goods and services consumed. He has a certain ideal, not necessarily a high one, for his personal development; that is, he has a standard of living. How achievable is it? That depends on his ability to discriminate between values, in other words, his judgment in making choices. But his power to make choices is limited by the amount and dependability of his annual income. So how far he can succeed in solving this second problem very much depends on how well he has solved the first—that of existing.

Third, is the problem of human beings who are more than reasonably intelligent; it is because they are highly intelligent that they are likewise socially minded. This is the problem of enabling others as well as oneself to

live. To solve it requires not merely individual effort but group effort—for the purpose of elevating for the whole group of people, first the average standard of living, second and consequently the average plane of living. Both of these social objectives are only to be achieved, in the main, by economic ways and means such, for example, as provision of revenue for public education.

Fourth, the problem, which like the problem of existing comes home to all human beings, of sex relations. This, too, is essentially an economic problem, which we see in the case of prostitution. Economically, prostitution is one of the gainful occupations. Someone asks, "How about marriage? Wasn't that mentioned in connection with the first problem as a means for insuring a livelihood?" Well, answering a question with a question, are there any who marry in order to escape self-support? Possibly we agree that the solution of this problem turns very much on a person's attitude towards what is the nub of the first problem, namely, responsibility for self-support.

What is the likely outcome of such a discussion as I have briefly sketched? Substantial agreement, perhaps, as to the philosophy of educated youth. But would there be agreement that precisely this philosophy applies to the half of educated youth in whom we are interested—educated young women? That is a question. However, the discussion will have served a good purpose if it does nothing else but stir all the participants to think out afresh and objectively what, in each one's belief, are the fundamental interests of women students. In so doing they will perceive, I believe, the importance of a good training in economic principles both for themselves preparing to be counselors, and for students endeavoring to achieve adequate social adjustment.

To epitomize: some sort of philosophy of educated young women the counselor must have to enable her to evaluate sanely the various economic problems of students—the temporary ones cropping up only during the college years, the permanent ones which will persist thruout life.

Nine interests and problems have been selected for discussion in this course, as follows:

1. Financial status of entering students
2. Whether students should try to earn while attending the university
3. How we can cooperate with those who do undertake to earn
- 4 and 5. Economic causes of students' emotional maladjustments and also of their ill health
6. Students' account keeping
7. Students' food and lodging
8. Students' cultural development
9. Students' future gainful occupation.

Every one of these interests, or problems, entails on our part either activities or research or both. An account of it all would require too much time. So I shall stress certain topics, touching the others lightly.

1. Financial status. I cite one example. We found thru research, in 1931, that students from farms, while constituting only 13 percent of the whole body of women students, form a third of the group which, in order to live

cheaply, resides outside the university dormitory, and half of the group which earns room and board by doing housework in private homes. Having discovered these facts, what did we do? We developed more facilities for cheap living—what we call kitchen privilege houses. And we intensified our efforts to promote social life for these two groups.

2. Should students try to earn while attending the university? As a rule, students are not encouraged to come unless they are reasonably certain of funds to meet necessary expenses for a year. I said "as a rule." There are always exceptions. But the longer the depression continues, the more wary we are about exceptions. They are always in peril of arriving in the bread line.

3. What about cooperation with students who do undertake to earn while attending the university?

Some of my students¹ in consumption economics have helped us recently with research which has yielded, among other facts, these: Out of something over 2200 women students from whom we received information, 8 percent are entirely self-financing; 11 percent are to a considerable extent self-financing, while another 23 percent are earning a little towards their expenses. This leaves about 58 percent who are financed entirely by their families. Our task of cooperation, which is a challenging and difficult one these days, relates chiefly, then, to about 20 percent of the students and especially to the 8 percent who are entirely self-financing. What do we do for those who apply to us for cooperation? First, and foremost, you may well believe we try to connect them with possible jobs. This means we put much effort on intensive cultivation of employers—but not merely that. The preliminary interview with students almost invariably involves at least the beginning of vocational counseling. For two groups of the self-financing students we do another thing. Before connecting them with possible employers, we give them a test. One group consists of students with commercial training, the other of students who wish to work in private homes for their room and board.

Any of you who are interested in learning more about our cooperation with self-financing students are referred to a recent article of mine which is entitled "Part-time Placing and Vocational Counseling of Women."²

4 and 5. Happily, the vast majority of students are normal, wholesome persons. And they, rather than the minority of pathological cases, constitute the main responsibility of a dean of women's office. Therefore, I shall merely call your attention in passing to topics 4 and 5—economic causes of students' emotional maladjustments and of their ill health. They are apt to be root causes—we must explore to the root and apply our healing there, if restoration is to take place.

6. Next, and briefly, is keeping account of expenditures. There is no virtue in account-keeping as such. What makes it worth doing for a time is if, as a result, the students become choice-conscious and full of desire to study the principles of choice making, in other words, of consumption economics.

¹ Ruth Davis, M.A., assisted by Emma Edwards and Margery Keith.

² The Ohio State University Educational Research Bulletin, Vol. XI, No. 16, Dec. 7, 1932.

All campuses of the size of ours have numerous women's organizations—fraternal, special interest, such as dramatic, musical, athletic, and religious, social clubs, governing boards such as Women's Student Government Association and Panhellenic, and so on. At no time is the group spending of each organization a negligible matter; at present, when funds are harder to get, it is uncommonly important. The largest single category of such organizations is the fraternal. We have approximately 25 active sororities. Most of them own or rent and operate houses. They are required to file not only with their national officers but with the dean of women, at regular intervals, a full report of assets and liabilities, of income and outgo. These data will be utilized for an early economic research project. The results may materially influence subsequent sorority policy and action.

7. The next topic—food and lodging. It is at all times, especially now, a major interest of students. This, if for no other reason than the high proportion which it absorbs of the student's income, approximately half in the case of the entirely self-financing students.

In our university the living arrangements of students are of seven general types in the following approximate proportions:

Students living in own homes.....	50%
University dormitories.....	17%
Private houses.....	10%
University approved houses.....	7%
Sorority houses.....	7%
Denominational dormitories.....	7%
Private homes working for board and room.....	2%

A pronounced effect of the depression has been to bring down, all along the line, the price charged or value imputed for room and board, a reduction, so far, of approximately 15 percent. With a view to next year, it may have to go down still lower. Mere cheapness, however, does not mainly interest us. What does deeply concern us is, first, an adequate standard of room and food, and second, the lowest possible price at which that standard can be secured.

To these two objectives, first, standard, and second maintaining that standard at the most economical price, we are now devoting considerable research. I might say that the house operators have cordially cooperated in the study. One of them seems already convinced that for years, without having known it, she has operated at a loss. About that I am not yet sure.

Another matter which we are not only investigating but are experimenting with is in connection with that group of students who are forced to keep living expenses down to the very minimum possible. A good many of our university houses meet this demand by offering kitchen privileges.

When the time is propitious—when we are again in a period of comparative prosperity—we hope an *educational* experiment may be made, i.e., a genuine cooperative house.

8. The next topic, students' cultural development, we all agree is of supreme importance. Dean Gaw is one of a number who have carefully in-

vestigated students' expenditure of time. I refer you to her article, "Advising Students in Their Distribution of Time," the Ohio College Association Bulletin No. 86. These comparative figures indicate that four to five out of every twenty-four hours of the student's time, on an average, constitute free time—that is, the residuum after allowing for all the time spent in sleep, meals, study, classes and conferences, travel, activities pertaining to the care of the person, and, if a working student, work for pay. What happens in this free time? Here is the clue to the interests of the students. The range and quality of these interests, plus the student's major and minor choices on the curricular side, may be said to constitute his culture. And his culture finds overt expression in his standard of living.

Our department of sociology, in a recent study of 204 freshmen's use of time, found a fourth of them spending no time in organized extra-curricular activities, over a third were engaged in only one—that as a general rule for less than an hour a day. This group was composed of both men and women. In a small study of women students recently made by a colleague and myself, we distinguished between organized extra-curricular activities and voluntary activities, organized or otherwise, off the campus. We did this because half of our women students live in town and have town interests. We found with rare exceptions that more of their free time was spent in off-the-campus activities than in campus activities. If this is generally true of our students, it seems to me to call for careful consideration.

The free time of students, likewise the free time of all people, is a great unoccupied frontier—an unorganized opportunity for education.

9. Our final topic is students' future gainful occupation. At the present time this, one would think, is the absorbing interest of students. But I am not so sure. It is a singular thing, but true in our experience, that where seven or eight students take the initiative in asking us to help them get part-time work, one will take the initiative in seeking vocational counsel. Perhaps, on the whole, vocational counseling is the most difficult of our problems because of the inertia we have to overcome.

I should like to speak of at least two guiding principles in vocational counseling. These are guiding principles only. There are many cases where they cannot very well be applied. First, we try to focus the student's attention at the start on her free time, then on her future working time. The whole trend in our generation is toward shorter working hours per day, a shorter working week; I dare say a shorter working year. When it comes to the working life, possibly it is tending or will tend to be somewhat prolonged. At most, however, the working period for every student will terminate relatively early in her life, whereas, thruout her life she will always have free time. Furthermore, in her free time she is more mistress of herself than in her working time. The next principle follows—namely, to focus her attention first on the choice of an avocation, and then on the choice of a future gainful occupation. By avocation I do not mean a mere hobby, altho I very much believe in hobbies. What I mean is an absorbing interest which the student can transmute into a socially significant voluntary activity.

CASE STUDIES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL ATTITUDES

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For the last eight years I have been working with a series of committees which have been formed to study the problems of social education. From the discussions in the meetings of these committees I have been led to form two convictions: first, that everyone has a right to be happy, and second, that the social sciences should contribute to happiness by teaching people how to live together well. Since these are fundamental and specific objectives for all social education, it may be worthwhile to report very briefly the way in which we are attempting to study them in our own institution.

It is always necessary to form some sort of hypothesis before one starts any investigation. Of the many hypotheses which I have used, the most profitable pertains to the relationship between law and ethics. It assumes that in the court decisions which have been given by judges as case after case, in country after country, has come before them, there has gradually been accumulated a kind of racial wisdom as to the ways of living together that have been found, by and large, to work the best. With the advice of the faculty of our law school and with the assistance of graduate students, I have been attempting to study what is involved in the social maladjustments which bring people before the court. I shall refer very briefly to three types of such situations: first, those involving lost and found articles, second, those involving trespass, and third, those involving slander.

Articles that are lost and found, represent a special case in the general field of private property. If you will examine a few issues of any local newspaper, you will see that it is only rarely that something is advertised as found, if the finder can use it or hide it so that nobody can discover it. Overcoats that will not fit may be reported, along with spectacles or keys, but purses, tools, and fountain pens are rarely advertised. The number of valuable things which are advertised in the lost column and which must of necessity have been found but were never so advertised is astonishing. The investigation of the attitudes which people have toward found articles helps to explain the discrepancy between the number of articles which are reported as lost and the number reported as found. The slogan "Finders, keepers" is still an agreeable salve to the conscience of many people. On the other hand, if one finds something to the value of ten dollars and does not advertise it, the punishment in most states, upon conviction, is almost as severe as though the object had been stolen. Both law and ethics dictate that every reasonable effort be made to discover the rightful owner to the property and that a failure to do so should be a punishable offense.

Dr. Ray Latham investigated the attitudes of people at different age levels toward various problems arising in connection with trespass. His conclusions are:

a. In general, there seemed to be no significant difference between the concepts concerning trespass on real estate, possessed by boys and by girls. In certain particu-

lar instances differences were noticeable, but such differences nearly always had to do with the minor and less consequential phases of the concrete situations being considered.

b. In general, a larger percentage of the children on each succeeding level of the grade scale thought that the welfare of society could be better served by protecting the interests of the real estate owner than by assuming a tolerant attitude towards the trespasser. Or, stated in another way, the higher on the grade scale pupils were enrolled, the greater was the percentage of pupils who gave what seemed to be the most intelligent answers to the questions involving certain issues relative to the matter of trespassing. There were, however, exceptions to this generalization. Instances were found where a larger percentage of Grade IV, than of Grade XII, pupils made a better response to the ethical phases of trespass situations. The pupils on lower grade levels seemed to agree with court decisions on certain points to a much greater extent than did the pupils on higher grade levels.

c. The pupils of widely separated environments of different types showed noticeable differences of opinion concerning (1) the amount of protection which real estate owners should have against various types of trespass; (2) the amount of tolerance and generosity which real estate owners should exercise towards various kinds of trespass; (3) the means for preventing trespass which real estate owners should employ; (4) the right of redress which real estate owners should have against property loss and unusual annoyance caused by trespassers, and (5) the right of redress which those individuals should have who receive injuries while crossing over or using the property of others with or without permission.

d. The presence of numerous defects, shortcomings, and imperfections in the concepts, ideals, and attitudes of the pupils on all grade levels of all environments constitutes a call for concrete, systematic, and directed training.

The third type of situations has to do with slander. I shall dwell upon this in greater detail, partly because the most important research upon it has been completed by Dr. Yates, who has had experience as an adviser of women, and partly because slander is apparently a universal type of social maladjustment. You will recall that one of the Ten Commandments, that great and restricted list of rules for living together well, deals with this problem. There can be no question about its importance. I suspect that, in any community represented in this room, as much sorrow is caused by slander and by careless and malicious gossip as by any other single factor. We have had since the time of Moses, and probably long before that if records were available, constant advice of a sound nature to the effect that we should not bear false witness against our neighbors.

Slander seems to be attached to almost all forms of social relationships, and some of the problems involved are of an exceedingly complicated character. We have striven, on the one hand, to preserve the right of free speech and, on the other, the right to protect our good names. It is easy to see that these two principles may at times come into conflict. There are occasions when the good of the community demands that one shall say things which may injure the individual about whom they are said. In other situations the obligation to make a statement may seem to be nicely balanced against the obligation to keep silent. Most reputations are damaged, however, without any justification whatever.

In the investigation by Dr. Yates the attempt was made to take only such cases as had persisted in coming before the court for a considerable

period of time and which were, in addition, common in all English-speaking countries. An examination of these cases shows that the motives which cause slander in these universal instances are many: personal dislike, jealousy, offense, malicious or idle gossip, and the like. The same things that prompt gossip now, apparently have always prompted it. No age seems to be immune. Almost the first thing that a young child learns to say is slanderous. The three-year-old has already learned to say, "Brother is a bad boy; sister is a bad girl." Few children talk six months without slandering, and the fundamental motives lying back of that childish slander are much the same as are found in the slander of adults.

One of the cases which Dr. Yates included in her study of slander has to do with talebearing, where the individual does not actually start the rumor but helps to spread it. It does just as much harm to spread gossip as to start it. Both from the standpoint of our best ethical thought and from the standpoint of the court it is perfectly evident that the race has agreed that we must not be talebearers. What are the convictions of students in this matter? In grade nine, the last year of the junior high-school level, only 22 percent of the students agreed with the principle established by law and ethics. Judgments on this case were secured also from prospective teachers in college. Only 31 percent of these college students agreed with the judgment of the court. This means that two-thirds of these prospective teachers have, in this instance, ethical judgments which may bring them and their pupils before the court.

The average results from tests on cases of unprivileged communication give an arresting picture. One state code defines privileged communication as "a communication without malice to a person interested therein by one who is also interested, or by one who stands in such a relation to the person interested as to afford a reasonable ground for supposing the motive for the communication innocent, or who is requested by the person interested to give the information." For example, if the daughter of a friend of yours were to become interested in a man that you know to be a thoro reprobate, you would feel privileged to warn your friend in confidence. You can readily see that most gossip or slander is not privileged.

Fifty-two percent of the children in grade six agreed in their judgments with the court in the matter of unprivileged communication, but only 35 percent of the students in the last year of the high school and only 34 percent of prospective teachers agreed with the court. The situation involved by this last percentage is most disturbing, for these persons will soon have the responsibility of guiding the growth of the moral concepts of pupils; yet two-thirds of them are wrong in the judgments which they would make on these common unprivileged communications.

Tradition has it that gossip is a feminine attribute and that it is peculiar to the small towns. Neither of these beliefs is borne out by the evidence in Dr. Yates' investigation. Boys did show a somewhat greater tendency to inquire into the truth of slanderous statements, but, by and large, the differences between the sexes were not important. There were few significant

differences between the concepts and attitudes of the children of small towns and those of large cities.

I should like now to point out a few deductions and implications from these investigations. Perhaps most important of all is the problem created by the lack of agreement in all these instances as to what type of behavior is most desirable. It is not easy to develop right conduct in children even when we know precisely what it is that we want to develop and even when the adults of the community are in agreement as to the mode of behavior. We should doubtless all agree that it is a good thing for every person to have a good speaking voice and to be able to speak well in public, but it is not easy to develop that ability. We all agree that it is a fine thing to have good posture, but it is difficult to develop good posture. We agree that everyone should be able to spell, but even with the best methods that are available, it is hard to teach people to spell. But in the field of morals there is an additional difficulty; namely, the adults of the community are not always in agreement as to how one should behave. Still more serious is the situation created by those who give lip service to a form of conduct in which they really do not believe, as shown by their private conduct. Such investigations as have been completed show that adults are not in agreement as to how to behave even in those situations about which there can be little doubt. The lack of agreement, on the part of many persons, with the almost universal opinions of the courts in all civilized countries constitutes a very serious problem. It means that the moral climate in which our boys and girls are supposed to thrive—the climate which impinges upon them at the breakfast table, on the street, and in school, is of a sort to make it difficult for them to live with other people as they should.

Let me repeat that it is not easy to teach something even when we all agree as to the desirability of what is to be taught, and even when we, as adults, will practise what we preach. And when the college or the high school or the elementary school is confronted with the problem of teaching something about which there is no agreement among adults, or agreement in lip service only, then the school is confronted with a very serious problem indeed.

The large amount of disagreement, on many items, between the judgments of the court and the judgments of children is very significant. It constitutes a challenge to every teacher in the school. One of the purposes of education is to develop law-abiding citizens, but evidently there is much to be done before students are able to make right judgments concerning their conduct, and still more to be done to insure that these judgments will be carried into action. The investigations by Latham and Yates show that there is a gradual improvement in social concepts as pupils progress thru the school. On the other hand, both investigators report that in several instances the concepts of college students were inferior to those of elementary-school students. The serious misconceptions and wrong attitudes thruout the grades indicate that the schools should make specific plans for the development of more intelligent attitudes toward the law.

Writers on character education are not in agreement as to whether instruction should be direct or incidental. It is my conviction that there must be some direct teaching, but whether instruction is direct or indirect, teachers must be provided with better analyses of social behavior than are now available. We have found these analyses very difficult to make. The social relationships which are involved in problems of conduct are almost always complicated. In almost every case there is a conflict of interests. The resolution of these conflicts requires a large amount of insight. It is well to stress the contribution of insight and sheer knowledge to living together well, for these factors have been underestimated of late. Yet even those who profess to believe that knowledge does not lead to virtue would hardly defend the position that ignorance moves in that direction. On the contrary, both modern theory and the results of research indicate that belief, which is knowledge assimilated and sincerely accepted, does tend to lead to virtue. It is conceivable that this organization could do no more useful work than to make a list of the typical cases with which you deal, define the issues involved in each type of problem, and record the most successful ways in which these problems have been solved.

Department of Educational Research

THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION applied in 1929 to become the Department of Educational Research in the National Education Association. The proper notice was given at the Atlanta meeting in 1929, and final action in creating the Department was taken at the Columbus, Ohio, meeting on July 3, 1930. The research organization brings with it a history rich in achievements and places the National Education Association in closer touch with colleges, universities, and research agencies.

Officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Paul T. Rankin, Supervising Director of Research and Adjustment, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.; *Vicepresident*, T. C. Holy, Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; *Secretary-Treasurer*, William G. Carr, Director, Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: Paul T. Rankin, Supervising Director of Research and Adjustment, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich.; William G. Carr, Director, Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.; W. W. Charters, Director, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; John L. Stenquist, Director, Bureau of Educational Research, Public Schools, Baltimore, Md.; William S. Gray, Director of Teacher Training, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1931:415-431 1932:357-375

THE STATUS OF THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION¹

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Any adequate account of the present status of the science of education would call for a review of some thousands of scientific studies of greater or less importance dealing with the fields of teaching and of learning, of physical and mental growth and health, of the curriculums of elementary, secondary, and higher educational institutions, and of the financing, management, and control of education in modern society.

Scientific work in education found its initial impulse in and was developed out of the work done in other social sciences. The establishment of a psychological laboratory in Johns Hopkins University under the direction of G. Stanley Hall marked an important transition in the development of this science and laid a foundation for scientific inquiry in the field of learning and teaching. The application of statistical and experimental methods to psychology by J. McKeen Cattell furnished the foundation upon which Thorndike and others developed and perfected these methods and their application in the whole range of educational problems. In like manner, the development of the sciences of biology, sociology, economics, and government have made their contribution to the development of methods applicable to the field of education.

It may be said for the science of education that it is no longer necessary among a group of professional workers to argue the case for scientific procedures in the solution of the problems of education. This may seem a very limited claim to the younger members of our group, but it may astonish them to know that such a statement could not have been made truthfully as little as twenty-five years ago.

There have been scientific inquiries concerned with (1) governmental control and the arrangements for interpretation of the desires of the community for education; (2) the financing of the educational program; (3) the registration of those subject to compulsory education and the securing of their regular attendance at school; (4) the organization of schools and of classes with reference to the differences which exist among pupils in intelligence, in physical condition, and in vocational outlook; (5) the training, assignment, supervision, remuneration and tenure of the staff employed in the schools; (6) the provision of building and equipment suitable for the most effective development of the program of education conducted in them; and (7) the technics essential for the efficient administration of the business affairs of schools and school systems.

In each case scientific inquiry has resulted in a modification of our practices. We have arrived at the place where we can predict the results that

¹ This and the following eight papers were presented before the first three general sessions of the Department at the Minneapolis meeting and constitute all of the material available from these sessions with the exception of the address by Leo J. Brueckner, "The Validity and Reliability of Educational Diagnosis," which appears in the *Journal of Educational Research* for November, 1932. Space limitations do not permit publication of the material presented before the five sectional meetings.

will follow from changes in procedure. We have learned how to conduct experiments scientifically, and the administrator has shown willingness to be guided by the results.

In summary it may be proposed that the scientific method has been applied to all sorts of educational problems. Results have been achieved which have increased the efficiency of our practise. There is recognition among scientific workers of the necessity for attacking the problems of education directly while at the same time utilizing the results made available by the sciences fundamental to education. One may safely propose upon the basis of work already accomplished that we are developing a science of education.

NEEDED DEVELOPMENTS AND EXPANSIONS

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Educational research is of three types: discovery, invention, and testing. They should be carried on in this order: discovery leads to fundamental facts and principals, invention puts the knowledge that we secure from discovery to practical use, and testing evaluates our inventions. Testing is, therefore, useful chiefly after discovery and invention have been carried on. In our educational research we have reversed the order and the emphasis. We have perfected measurement to a high degree but we have not had very much to measure. The need of the hour seems to be for social invention to match our technological invention. This need is as urgent in education as in other social enterprises. Our research departments, therefore, should be charged with the responsibility of systematic invention of new educational procedures as well as of testing or measurement.

RECENT SOCIAL CHANGES AND EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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The rapidity of modern social change is introducing new problems for educational research. There is need for examination and investigation of the assumptions of modern education to find if they conform to the needs of the new world which science and the machine are creating, and more especially to insure that the school readjusts itself to the new social environment which is in process of formation.

Population changes, for example, may result in a shift in emphasis from elementary and secondary education, to the adult field. In 1930 there were fewer children in the United States under the age of five than in 1920; in 1940 there will be a million less children of the school ages nine to sixteen than there were in 1930. The birth rate is falling, while more people are attaining the upper reaches of life. The problem of the future will be to provide means for continuing the education of these older groups. In a

rapidly changing world formal education of early years becomes quickly obsolete, and educational researchers of the present must begin to plan for vocational and cultural education for increasing numbers of adults in the future. The increase of the median age of the population from 16.7 years in 1820 to 26.4 in 1930 suggests that as a nation we are growing older; older age normally means conservatism unless deliberately counteracted. One problem of educational research in the face of increasing numbers of older people, is how to prevent the conservatism that would normally inhibit the changes in attitude and belief that are imperative in a mechanical and scientific world.

Especially important for investigation are problems relating to the ability of the school to train men and women to resist the bombardment of suggestion and misinformation that reaches them thru the mass communication network that has developed during the past decade. It is important to know if ideas inculcated by formal education can and do withstand the onslaught of vigorous appeal that comes from non-school sources. If not, the school has been defeated in its avowed purpose of providing citizens with the knowledge and attitudes upon which to base their lives.

Finally, there is need for educational research to ascertain if the school is now inculcating the social values which will enable the individual to make a successful personal adjustment to modern social changes. The school must seek the way to counteract the impression of chaos that a survey of modern life presents, and the seeking must be in terms of social values that gear in with modern life as it actually is.

The discussion as a whole is based upon the recently issued Report of the President's Committee on Social Trends, and points out implications of this report for educational research.

COMMON FAULTS IN GRADUATE RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

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I propose to discuss current graduate research in education under six heads:

1. Several years ago the phrase "the scientific study of education" was widely used and there was considerable hope that by the application of scientific methods, educational practises, procedures, and policies could be put on an indisputable basis. Emphasis in the scientific method was on the gathering of facts. At that time the school survey was having its vogue and every school survey placed considerable emphasis on the gathering of facts concerning the achievement and intelligence of the pupils, the adequacy of the school buildings, the preparation of teachers. This practise of gathering facts has persisted as a shibboleth even tho the value or significance of these facts has often been obscured.

2. Many students undertake a problem with inadequate background of information and understanding. In our American universities it seems as

tho we lack the thoro scholarship that is often claimed for and found in European universities. Our students apparently first wish to propose and attack a problem and then gain their understanding of the problem and its ramifications as they proceed. Students, for instance, will undertake problems of legal requirements of education with only a meager acquaintance with the law, or problems on the planning and construction of school buildings or dormitories with little or no understanding of the principles of architecture, or problems with regard to pupil attitudes and interests with but limited background in psychology. We should require that students undertake problems that are related to their previous preparation. No one can do adequate thinking in a field in which he has not had thoro and fundamental training. Thinking on a problem is not something that can be undertaken in a dilettante fashion. The work for the doctor's degree should be the climax of years of study and should be the result of mature thinking in a field with which the student has had long acquaintance. Were this principle more closely adhered to, many mediocre dissertations would never have been undertaken.

3. Much of our research in education has failed to be consciously aware of certain fundamental assumptions that have been made. Much of the research in education has been done under the guidance of those whose experience has been in the fields of intelligence and achievement testing and the research has been colored by the assumptions which underlay work in this field. I can best illustrate my point by giving an example.

A number of investigators have studied the significance of class size. The traditional experimental attack is to give achievement tests of school subjects to classes which have been large and other classes which have been small and note the differences in achievement. The assumption that has been tacitly made in these studies is that all of the worthwhile values of education are contained in the results of tests of achievement. Now it is well known that there are many values for which no adequate tests have yet been devised. For instance, ability to participate in group discussion is a value the importance of which is becoming increasingly felt. Has anyone made studies of the extent to which pupils tend to participate in group discussion in large classes as compared with smaller classes?

4. Another fault which is occasionally found in graduate research is the bias that comes from catering to or working for a professional group. This is most clearly seen in studies that are sponsored and financed by organizations. When the Association Against the Prohibition Amendment sponsored a series of research bulletins a few years ago it was quite evident that, however honest the investigator himself was, the conclusions reached by research sponsored by such an organization would emphasize only one side of the story. In like manner studies sponsored by correspondence schools, by electric power companies, by food corporations, by the Red Cross, by the D. A. R., and the like, must always be suspected of bias. If the investigator is being financed by some such organization no matter how honest he can be, his results must inevitably be colored by the fact that he feels a certain responsibility to the organization that is backing his study. That the same

tendency holds true with students sponsored by professional groups within education is not so generally recognized. Any professional group in education, however, has certain interests to further. It may be the sponsors of adult education, it may be the science teachers, it may be the guidance counselors, whatever the group and however honest their motives they still have an interest in maintaining their service. This is true partly because they really believe in the value of what they are doing. It may also be true because we all tend to try to favor our own group in our own decisions. We have been fortunate in having so much research in education sponsored by the large impersonal foundations established by Rockefeller, Carnegie, Russell Sage and others. The investigator who works under a grant from one of these foundations feels no obligation to support any platform or organized group and consequently these investigations have been remarkably free from bias.

5. Graduate research in education sometimes makes a poor choice of research methods and instruments of investigation. For instance, so many students wishing to include in the study some measure of intelligence, interest, attitude or socio-economic status will propose using some readily accessible scale or test which can be commercially purchased. Because a test is called an intelligence test or an interest questionnaire many students will accept these titles without challenge and will proceed to use these instruments and interpret the results in terms of the printed title. Often in recent work in which attitudes toward ability grouping or interests in certain types of activity are to be studied there are no instruments at present available which exactly satisfy these purposes. It is then up to the student to construct his own test or questionnaire.

6. My last point has to do with certain technical faults to be found in dissertations in education. I have time only to mention two or three that have been recently brought to my attention. One concerns the reporting of differences that are not reliable. I think it only human nature that a student should want to make some outstanding discovery or to prove something that is not already known and recognized. To spend a year or so in tedious drudgery on a problem only to end up with negative conclusions is at least discouraging if not indicative of poor guesswork at the beginning. As a matter of fact, to prove that relationships do not exist where they may have been suspected is as important a contribution as to discover or prove relationships, and no one should have his research rejected because he has not been able to get significant differences between groups or to get coefficients or correlations which depart in a reliable way from zero.

One wonders how frequently numerical errors appear in statistical computations. I am quite sure that the immense volume of statistics that annually appear in graduate research in education is not checked over as it should be by those who are responsible for it. I am of the opinion that a clever student could manufacture out of nothing test scores, averages, standard deviations, and coefficients or correlations without having anyone check up on the accuracy of his work. We sometimes expect a good deal of our students

when we require them to score hundreds of tests, tabulate hundreds of questionnaires, and carry thru statistical computations with accuracy when apparently no check is made on the carefulness with which the work is done.

Finally the form of the manuscript as it is submitted is often unsatisfactory. There are many manuals giving standards for style for such matters as preparation of graphs and tables and bibliographies, and students should consult these manuals and bring their manuscripts into conformity with these standards.

In conclusion, research is not something that can be ground out as by a machine. Genuine research must be an exploration, a gamble, and every student who undertakes to do research must, of necessity, be taking a chance. The sure-fire problem the end of which is visible from the beginning does not constitute genuine research. Any student who wishes to undertake research in education must be willing to take a venture into the unknown and only by so doing will he bring back the fruits of genuine discovery.

THE ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF THE TIME SAMPLING METHOD

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The technic of time sampling grows logically out of the technic of behavior unit. Some kinds of behavior occur with a sufficiently high degree of frequency and are sufficiently common so that by observing the child for a predetermined period of time and recording his behavior during that period in accordance with criteria laid down in advance, a sample can be secured which may be indicative of the frequency of the behavior over a longer period of time. Keeping this time constant introduces an element of control which facilitates the handling of the data. In all scientific work sampling is used. A limited number of experiments are performed in the laboratory on selected subjects. From the results obtained generalizations are made as to the interrelations of certain phenomena. It is not necessary to observe a subject twenty-four hours a day in order to draw conclusions about his behavior. The assumption that underlies the use of the time sampling technic is that a sample of behavior is indicative of behavior over a longer period of time and that the appearance of a particular response on one occasion is related to the appearance of that response on another occasion. The extent to which a time sample has predictive value also can be determined.

A number of methodological problems however still wait solution. No one so far as I know has attacked the problem of the optimum length of time to be used in sampling. In some studies five-minute samples have been used, in others two minutes, and in others one minute, and in others half minutes. Further investigations may reveal that with some traits a five-minute period is preferable to a one-minute period, while for others a one-minute period is preferable to a five-minute one.

A second problem of much interest centers about the predictive value of the time sampling technic over a period of time. The studies so far undertaken have been completed within a single school year. What is the relationship between scores based on samples taken at the age of two years, and scores based on samples taken at the age of four or five years?

A third problem is that of checking the length and number of various traits of samples against detailed observations obtained by the behavior log method over a long period of time. For instance if an activity could be measured for six hours or eight hours a day for a number of days there would be the problem of how adequately one-minute or two-minute or five-minute time samples picture the longer measure of behavior.

I wish to point out that there are three methods of studying behavior as it occurs under natural as distinct from artificial conditions which have appeared recently. Of these the first is the method of situational analysis in which emphasis is placed upon the observation of the reactions of children to frequently occurring situations by placing trained observers at critical points. The second, the method of behavior unit, involves a categorization or description of behavior, either simple or complex, and a study of the conditions under which this behavior occurs, without particular reference to the length of the period of observation, but with an attempt to obtain information on all the accessory conditions which might lead to its interpretation. The third technic, that of time sampling, involves the making of observations in accordance with categories laid down in advance, during intervals which are kept constant. From the results generalizations can be made as to the likelihood or possibility of the particular behavior occurring in larger units of time and scores obtained that can be correlated with measures obtained by the use of more traditional technics. Of the three methods, the time sampling technic lends itself most readily to statistical treatment since it is possible to secure as many samples as necessary to obtain stable series of measures. But all three methods yield quantitative results and are a distinct advance over running accounts or qualitative descriptions of behavior. Up to the present time, the possibilities of these methods hardly have been explored. Altho many questions of technic still remain to be solved, their future is bright whether or not fulfillment comes up to anticipation. Thru them our conception of child development should be broadened and many phases of human behavior that now lie outside the realm of quantification and systematic observation brought within the realm of science.

THE COORDINATION OF RESEARCH AMONG NATIONAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

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When this decade opened there was much educational research under way. Nothing was any longer assumed. Everything had to have an objective background. Not only were the colleges and universities interested in research

but their departments of education were vigorously hunting for facts. In 1932 over half the state departments of education had a division of research. More than one hundred twenty-five cities also reported research departments and these were turning out reports which while primarily of interest to the city concerned were of course of some value to general research in education.

In addition to all this, the United States Government was supporting an Office of Education which was passing its administrative functions in Alaska over to other offices and giving itself almost entirely to the fields of educational research and investigation and service.

The question arises, what can this office do that other officials cannot do? The law creating it provides "that there shall be established . . . an Office of Education for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories and of diffusing such information respecting the organization of management of schools and school systems . . . thruout the country." This law assumes the gathering of certain statistics. These statistics have been collected ever since the time of the second commissioner, John Eaton, and have been gathered in increasing amounts beginning with the administration of Commissioner Tigert. Not wanting to depend upon questionnaires and correspondence alone, Commissioner Tigert secured an appropriation for four assistant statisticians of education. These men every other year spend about five months of their time in the field and gather the figures first hand. Our figures are now estimated to be about 95 percent complete. They give the best picture of education in the United States that we have. Granting that these statistics should be collected, the question arises, can they be gathered by anyone else? I myself think that there is no educational association that could put forth the effort necessary to collect them. I am sure that no state department of education could do it for if it were left to the states themselves to do there would be forty-eight such organizations each making its own appeal in its own way. There would be no uniformity. We work, however, with a state and thru these traveling statisticians gradually bring the varying states into uniformity in length of year, length of day, etc. Unquestionably the best place for these figures to be gathered and kept is at a central federal office in Washington. Moreover, after statistics have been gathered the federal office can speak for the country to each of the forty-eight states and to the other civilized countries of the world, for in most foreign countries there is a ministry of education which gathers similar figures. Thru the State Department our Office of Education is in touch with all of these other nations. At present we gather and publish at regular intervals statistics with regard to state school systems, city school systems, higher institutions of education, public and private secondary schools, and private elementary schools. At four- or five-year intervals our statistical division gathers data on private commercial schools, on nurse-training schools, and on special schools for the blind, deaf, crippled, and defective. It also

gathers every four or five years the figures on libraries whether maintained by the public, by societies, or by schools.

These give an idea of the studies we make at regular intervals, either biennially, or at four- or five-year intervals. In addition there are several special studies which may be made only once. For example, during the past year we have given attention to the following topics: economic outlook in higher education, economic outlook in city schools, effects of the depression on rural schools, trade and technical schools, cost of textbooks, expenditures in liberal arts colleges, and Negro education.

In addition to this work we keep track of what is going on in the separate states. One of our men is especially equipped in the matter of school legislation. It is his duty to report on what the legislatures in each state do. For example, at the present time there are some states which have state tenure laws for teachers. The gist of these laws he knows. There are more than this number of states which have teacher-retirement laws. How these funds are made up and how they are administered are questions on which he issues bulletins from time to time. He gives information about what each state does with its exceptional children, that is, how they care for the blind, the deaf, the crippled, the delinquent, the subnormal. Frequently information of this kind is put into the form of bulletins and issued to any who are interested in it.

But we are able to do some direct experimental work in spite of the fact that we have no laboratory facilities. This is usually done in cooperation with other agencies. Among the studies which have required considerable coordination of our office is a study of the peoples of the southern mountain areas. Here it was necessary to coordinate the work of several county superintendents in different states. This is a general sociological and economic study of the whole Southern Appalachian Region. It has been undertaken by some private agencies and the government working together, under the chairmanship of the Department of Agriculture. Each cooperating agency is assigned its part and is solely responsible. Our man has assumed the work in elementary and secondary education. This represents only a part, however, of his regular assignment of the study of educational provisions in sparsely settled areas.

The Office of Education serves as a coordinating influence for the city school systems in many ways. At the present time a study is being made to discover administration measures and teaching procedures which will reduce retardation in the early grades. In cooperation with the city school supervisors our kindergarten-primary specialists are now studying the existing organization in primary grades in Philadelphia, Battle Creek, Mich., Baltimore, Montclair, N. J., Bronxville, N. Y., Seattle, Greenwich, Conn., Minneapolis, and Terre Haute, Ind. The organization of each city presents different problems in providing for the regular progress of primary children. It is hoped that the results of such experiments as that of "three or four semesters for two" in Baltimore, of no promotion till the end of the third year in Montclair, of two years to a teacher plan in Bronxville, and others

will contribute valuable suggestions to schools thruout the country when their findings can be pooled.

In addition to these pieces of research work which the office does and to the ways in which it attempts to coordinate research thru the country, we have organized at the request of the state superintendents and commissioners of education a National Advisory Council on School Building Problems. This cooperates with the Office of Education in doing research on school buildings.

As an indispensable aid to research the office maintains a library of approximately 140,000 volumes. About 20,000 of these books are textbooks which have been used in American schools at different times. Here will be found the McGuffey Readers, Webster Blue Back Speller, and other books which have been famous. Only about half of these textbooks have been cataloged so far due first to shortage of help, and second, to lack of space. It is hoped that as appropriations make it possible, these defects may be overcome. When these textbooks are finally in service, it is proposed to issue a short bibliography each on reading, on writing, on spelling, on arithmetic, etc. Books which we know we have not we shall endeavor to get, for when the history of American education is finally written it must be written with these books as documental evidence. Here also are the records from the various states on their school systems. Here will be found the catalogs of colleges and universities thruout these states.

This in a general way gives a view of the Office of Education as it usually functions in research. During the present administration we have accomplished some large pieces of direct research. In these fields we projected a National Survey of Secondary Education, a National Survey of the Education of Teachers, and a National Survey of School Finance. The first two will be completed by June of this year. One will be published and the second ready for the publisher. The study on the education of teachers, however, was reduced 10 percent in the present (third) year and the study of school finance was entirely eliminated in the interest of economy after it had run one year. In these studies a group of educators who are well posted in the field are selected to serve as consultants. A recognized authority in the field is always selected as associate director of the survey. The three men who have done this work have been Dr. L. V. Koos of the University of Chicago, Dr. E. S. Evenden, and Dr. Paul R. Mort, both of Teachers College, Columbia University.

The Survey of Secondary Education which was completed last June and which is now being printed, will consist of some 28 monographs embracing about 3,500 pages.

The Teacher Education Survey which will be completed this June, will give a picture of what teachers are required in the schools, what education and professional preparation they have, and where they come from. Charts giving much information have already been published in *School Life*. A 100-page bibliography on the education of teachers has been published as Vol. I of Bulletin No. 10, 1933 Series. Our specialists found it necessary to prepare

this bibliography before they could proceed very far with their studies. There are in course of preparation the following: a history of the professional education of teachers in the United States, an investigation and evaluation of the curriculum for the education of teachers in both the teachers colleges and in the liberal arts colleges, a special study on the preparation of Negro teachers, a measurement of teaching ability, an analysis of laboratory school facilities and practises in different types of institutions, a comparison of the present situation with Coffman's study of 1911, and reading interests of teachers compared with other groups.

The study of school finance will be brought to a conclusion before this paper is ready. It consists of but three volumes: first, an annotated bibliography, bringing the bibliography of the educational finance inquiry down to date; second, a report on the state support of education, showing how educational opportunity differs in different states of the Union and in different parts of the same state; and third, a volume of the study which will bring together the problems that had been outlined for study under the heading, "Needed Research in School Finance." Both of these latter volumes are produced by the generous aid of the General Education Board, which appropriated \$25,000 when Congress saw fit to discontinue its money.

THE COORDINATION OF RESEARCH BY STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

WARREN W. COXE, DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH,
ALBANY, N. Y.

The activities of state education departments in regard to research are best understood against a background of the theories which have controlled the duties of state educational officers. According to one theory a state department of education is a passive statistical agent, a distributor of state monies and an "arbitrary, technical and legal enforcing authority." Such duties do not require much professional training or leadership. According to another theory a state department of education is "an active, energetic agent working consistently and intelligently for the moral, intellectual, and social improvement and advancement of the people and the betterment of educational conditions thruout the state."

In many of our states today there is an inconsistent intermingling of these two theories in the actual operation of departments of education. I believe it is correct to say, however, that the conception of a state education department as a high-grade clerical office, merely, is rapidly passing and is being replaced by the conception of a department as exercising educational leadership within the state. This latter view is in accordance with the provisions of our federal Constitution, for it was obviously intended that leadership in educational matters should not be a federal function but that it should be delegated to the several states.

To my mind, this obligation of educational leadership imposed upon state education departments is the primary justification for the organization of

research in such departments. My paper deals not with the research studies which are conducted by state departments of education but with the efforts which these departments exercise to coordinate the research efforts not only within their own organizations but within the states for which they are responsible. The subject, therefore, naturally divides itself into two parts: policies and organizations which tend to bring about an integration of research activities within a state department of education, and the activities which tend to integrate the research efforts of the whole state.

First, research which is primarily statistical and routine, while usually a necessary first step, is a passing phase. More and more, research in state departments is concerning itself with the study of problems, particularly those which are basal to the formulation of state education policies. This is in accord with the increasing amount of leadership which is being exercised by state departments. As progress along these lines is made there must be provision for greater coordination of research activities between the members of the staff.

A second trend I would call to your attention is the growing recognition that the state department is in a strategic position to coordinate the research activities of a state, with no evidence of a desire to interpret this as control or domination of research. The reason for this increased coordination is probably to be found in the growing importance of educational problems of a statewide nature. The purposes of the coordination are better understanding of the problems to be studied and encouragement of those capable of and interested in research.

DESIRABLE STEPS IN COORDINATING RESEARCH AT THE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LEVEL

FRED J. KELLY, CHIEF, DIVISION OF HIGHER EDUCATION, U. S. OFFICE OF
EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

I am beginning to be impressed with the need of a research worker's code of ethics. I think, therefore, that I shall propose such a code as an introduction to my paper. If by a stroke of luck this code coincides with the codes held by any considerable number of those present, and if then those who believe in this code would practise it (an even more unlikely hypothesis) a great advance in coordinating research would be made thereby. My code of ethics contains two clauses:

1. Research workers, both for themselves and their students, should not undertake problems for which they lack the essential desiderata. What I mean is, that if some graduate student turns up, let us say, at the University of Nebraska with a burning interest in the educational implications of salt water bathing beach practises, he should be told that the University of Nebraska has only meager facilities for observing salt water bathing beach practises, and therefore the student should seek a more appropriate place for his research.

2. Inexperienced research workers ought not to engage in studies involving the cooperative effort of others without the backing of an experienced research worker, which backing is made clear in the request for cooperation.

If this brief code of ethics is followed, it will help all coordination efforts. Do only what you are prepared to do well, and expect cooperation only on properly sponsored projects.

Desirable steps in coordinating research at the college and university level, may be grouped around two separate types of problems: (1) cooperative projects and (2) individual projects. In either group of problems, the object of coordination is twofold—first to facilitate progress in the project itself, and second, to avoid waste and duplication of effort.

Cooperative projects—The first type of cooperative projects is that where the research worker is alone in devising the procedures and instruments of research, and he seeks cooperation of others who merely comply with his requests or follow his instructions. This type includes questionnaire studies, most state testing programs, and surveys.

For this type of project, there is need for an agency to assure both the soundness of the procedure and the proper construction of the instruments like questionnaires. This type of research is in great danger of slow but sure death for want of such protection as the above suggestion affords. Even well-conceived studies, making use of carefully constructed questionnaires are endangered by the rising tide of resentment occasioned by the flood of studies not well conceived and by the almost daily receipt by busy educators of questionnaires which are obviously bad. If there were some agency, say a committee of this research association, whose approval of a questionnaire was necessary before members of this association would fill it out, it would do wonders to improve the quality both of the project, and of the questionnaire.

If such a committee were created, you would undoubtedly desire to know what principles the committee would use in reaching its decisions to approve or disapprove before the association would vote to support the committee and refuse to cooperate with unapproved projects. A committee would no doubt require time for the formulation of such a set of principles, but would not wish to go forward with their task of approving projects without submitting their plans and policies to the Association.

What would such principles or policies probably cover? At least three things, as it seems to me: first, that the worker shows evidence of acquaintance with the literature on the subject, and does not cover ground already covered unless he is definitely checking on previous research; second, that the project does not duplicate some other project already under way; and third, that the plan, including the proposed questionnaire, meets the requirements and specifications set up for satisfactory research technic. For carrying out the last safeguard, it might be found desirable to prepare a brief set of specifications with which a questionnaire would need to conform in order to be approved.

Let no one be deceived. The task I am proposing for this committee or other approving agency, is no light one. I am convinced, however, that no equal amount of labor spent otherwise would yield so high a return in raising the standard of research and in working possible studies which are coming

now to be nearly impossible because of rebellion among those who are asked to fill out questionnaires. The cost of the committee service might be carried by a fee, scaled to the amount of labor required by each application for approval, and charged against the individual or institution asking for approval.

The second type of cooperative project is that where several research workers join in devising the project, and divide among themselves the several segments of the study. This is the type employed in seminar classes, particularly where the students carry on field work as a part of the project. This is now common and affords one of the most fruitful fields for research.

Individual projects—What is necessary to bring about helpful coordination among the projects being carried on by faculty members or advanced students in the colleges and universities thruout the land seems clear. There is need first for a clearing-house by means of which each research worker may know what others are doing. Second, there is need for opportunity of research workers to get together by states or other suitable regions to hear and criticize one another's reports. Third, there is need for a national meeting annually of those most interested to look critically at the technics of research being employed, and to guide the general development of the program of research; and fourth, there is need for a more adequate channel of publication. By the clearing-house step, each worker could coordinate his efforts with those of other workers in the same or related fields. By the regional conferences neighboring research workers could become acquainted and the work of each strengthened by the criticism of the others. By publication of reports, each could have the advantage of what the others had done.

How best to carry out the above program is by no means clear. I felt so keenly its high value to college and university education that it was my principal reason in going to the U. S. Office of Education eighteen months ago to assist in carrying it out. It seemed to me that in the early stages of the development of the program of research on the college level, the U. S. Office might undertake to collect a list of projects in progress, mimeograph them, and circulate them among the workers. This was done last year. Instead of communicating with the thousand colleges separately, effort was made to work thru either a state college association or a higher education section of a state teachers association in each state in order to encourage the foundation of research groups in each state. Because of following this plan, not all the colleges were reached, but a list of 486 projects was compiled and distributed to the workers.

To summarize, cooperative research calls for the services of a committee authorized to approve questionnaire projects as a prerequisite to cooperation by members of the Research Association. Individual research calls for some central office to serve as a clearing house to bring persons of like interest to one another's attention, and to foster conferences at which reports may be made and criticized. Only in this way can the technics of research be validated and these isolated workers inspired to persist in what is too often a rather thankless task.

THE COOPERATION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS AND EDUCATORS IN RESEARCH

CHARLES ASCHER, SECRETARY, PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CLEARING HOUSE,
CHICAGO, ILL.

With the current general onslaught on governmental expenditures which threatens the mutilation of the services which forward-looking citizens have come to recognize as vital, it particularly behooves those working in the field of educational administration to form close ranks with students of public administration in general. Each can profitably learn from the other. Particularly unfortunate situations arise at the present time in communities where various branches of governmental service seem to compete with one another for shares in the reduced fund available for taxes. Those responsible for general local government feel that the important thing to bring home to the public is the vital role of government. If all governmental groups do not present this picture in a united way, the attack on one service is likely to carry down others.

Specifically in the field of research in administration, this means that every device for reducing the unit cost of services must be used in every branch, and it is suggested that educators who have not done so familiarize themselves with the progress that has been made in other branches of the public service toward this end thru centralized purchasing, stores and equipment control, unit cost accounting, budgetary control and allotments, and public reporting.

Beyond this educators must work with other students of government for the simplification of the structure of government, the present antiquated complexity of which accounts for so large a part of the waste which threatens the extinction of the services. The fiscal relations of school authorities to local communities and to states must be worked out, not in a spirit of contest, but in a spirit which will make the citizen feel that his legitimate problems are being dealt with sympathetically and fairly.

The bureaus of municipal research which exist in more than seventy cities, the workers of which are organized in the Governmental Research Association, and the associations of forward-looking public administrators who are attempting to build up in their several disciplines the same spirit of professionalism which the educators have long had, welcome cooperation from those in educational research and plead for it. Notable among such associations are the International City Managers' Association, the Municipal Finance Officers' Association, the American Municipal Association, and many others which can be reached thru the Public Administration Clearing House.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis, Minnesota

The annual business meeting of the American Educational Research Association was held February 25, 1933. The secretary-treasurer reported an increase of 26

active members, 20 subscribers to the *Review of Educational Research*, and 52 single copies of the *Review* sold during the year 1932. The full report was distributed to all members.

The Auditing Committee, M. M. Proffitt, chairman, reported that the accounts of the Association were in correct and accurate condition.

The Editorial Board, Frank N. Freeman, chairman, submitted a report outlining plans for the second cycle of the *Review of Educational Research*.

The Necrology Committee, W. W. Theisen, chairman, reported that the following active members of the Association had died during the past year: Robert D. Cole, professor of secondary education, University of North Dakota; and Arthur W. Kallom, director, Department of Educational Investigation, Boston, Massachusetts.

A report was received from George D. Stoddard, representative of the Association to the National Research Council.

E. J. Ashbaugh, the representative to the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, submitted a request for an appropriation of \$50 for the work of the committee. Later in the week the Executive Committee appropriated this sum. Edward S. Evenden was appointed to represent the Association for a six-year term on the National Council of Education.

Frank N. Freeman was appointed to succeed himself for a three-year term as a member of the Editorial Board.

The Committee on Membership, B. R. Buckingham, chairman, submitted a preliminary report. The committee was continued with the request that a report be filed with the Executive Committee, on needed changes in the constitution and procedure concerning the selection of members of the Association.

The Nominating Committee, M. R. Trabue, chairman, submitted the following nominations: For president, Paul T. Rankin, supervising director of research and adjustment, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan; for vicepresident, T. C. Holy, professor of education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. There were no other nominations, and the secretary was instructed to cast a ballot for these two officers and they were declared elected.

Department of Elementary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, temporarily organized as the National Association of Elementary School Principals at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1921, became a department of the National Education Association at Des Moines, in July 1921.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Aaron Kline, Principal, Pullman School, Chicago, Ill.; *First Vicepresident*, Elizabeth McCormick, Principal, Timothy O. Howe School, Superior, Wis.; *Second Vicepresident*, Mason A. Stratton, Principal, Brighton Avenue School, Atlantic City, N. J.; *Third Vicepresident*, M. Emma Brookes, Principal, Miles School, Cleveland, Ohio; *Fourth Vicepresident*, Ernest L. Markley, Principal, Ritchie Platoon School, Wheeling, W. Va.; *Fifth Vicepresident*, Margaret C. Mackintosh, Principal, Public School 140, Brooklyn, N. Y.; *Executive Secretary*, Eva G. Pinkston, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: A. B. Heacock, Principal, Los Feliz School, Los Angeles, Calif. (Term expires 1934); Herbert C. Hansen, Principal, Talcott School, Chicago, Ill. (Term expires 1935); Cassie F. Roys, Principal, Walnut Hill School, Omaha, Nebr. (Term expires 1936); Earl R. Laing, Principal, Burt School, Detroit, Mich. (Term expires 1937).

This Department meets twice each year, in February and in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:453	1924:545-564	1927:419-455	1930:333-365
1922:851-886	1925:450-477	1928:375-409	1931:433-465
1923:653-666	1926:459-495	1929:391-424	1932:377-406

EDUCATION FOR WORTHY HOME MEMBERSHIP

BESS GOODYKOONTZ, ASSISTANT U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

Homes are different now from what they were in the days of our grandparents, or our parents, or, in fact, from the homes we knew when we were the age of the children with whom elementary-school principals work. Most homes now are town or city homes, not farm homes. This means living relatively closer together, but not having neighbors, having less privacy, becoming accustomed to noise, taking children out of the yards and rearing them in four-room apartments.

The connection between these rapid shifts in patterns of home life and the need for emphasis upon worthy home membership is evident. Parents are facing living conditions—economic and social—for which they have had no preparation. Old standards and attitudes and practises seem not to work. Developing new patterns which give back to children the things which city life has taken away, must be included in education for worthy home membership.

I should like to suggest as one step forward a perfectly definite practical step which can be taken as soon as we all reach home again, that a survey be made of the course of study in each grade of the elementary school to see just where, in what activities or chapters or subjects, provision is made for working with homes in developing worthwhile skills and habits and interests for those eighteen hours out of every twenty-four that children are in their own homes or under home supervision. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that setting up standards and goals for these home hours must be done by homes and schools together, otherwise children are ground between two programs.

There is, for example, the child who has always drunk milk for breakfast but now that he goes to a kindergarten where milk-drinking is socially necessary, he refuses to drink his milk for breakfast. One program conflicts with the other. There is the other child whose father has always insisted that whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well—that a drawing, a toy cart, a valentine once begun should be done as well as the boy is capable of doing. But at school spontaneity, interest, dash, breadth of interests, quickness, swinging push-pulls instead of meticulous capital A's are emphasized. His home program and his school program conflict.

Possibly, then, the step forward I am suggesting may include really three steps: first, an inventory of the homes represented in the elementary-school group, to discover the possibilities for work at home, for home play, and for getting help at home, with especial notice of the gaps that are evident; second, an inventory of the places in each grade's study program in which attention may be given to the interests and activities and attitudes which strengthen home life; and third, a definite plan whereby each grade will contribute something toward that elusive but valuable goal of worthy home membership.

THE ADVANCE OF SCHOOL FINANCE

ROSS N. YOUNG, PRINCIPAL, MARSHALL HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

School financing cannot be accomplished by piecemeal methods. It is necessary to take a broad view of general principles. Social and economic conditions are changing so rapidly that a new concept of taxation must be had.

The rights of the various interested groups run in this order: child and society, teachers, taxpayers, other interested groups. The rights and welfare of the child and of society are of so much greater importance that teacher and taxpayer must keep their interests in the background. The welfare of the *whole* community is superior to the welfare of a single group of taxpayers.

The problem must be recognized. The rise in prices from 1896 to 1929, the tremendous increase in high-school enrolment, the humane care of the unfortunate have increased greatly the gross amount of educational expenditures. The new leisure will send millions of children and adults into the day and night schools. These things mean that we cannot escape paying a greater proportion of the social income to the public schools.

We need, therefore, an entirely new system of taxation. The heavy taxes on real and personal property must go. We must have new sources of taxation. We must think of taxation as a division of the total social income and not as so many dollars and cents. A country that suffers from over-production cannot say that it cannot spend more on schools. Increased appropriations for public schools are a necessary corollary to an economic society based upon the machine. Only when we suffer from under-production do we need to devote less of the social income to education.

To provide the funds necessary for these things, there must be taxes on incomes, inheritances, gifts, amusements, and sales. Tax-exempt securities should be made illegal. The state must help the poor communities. The progress of the Minnesota Junior Taxpayers' Association offers valuable suggestions.

The schools must accept depression conditions, eliminate the incompetent and selfish employee, eliminate such expensive practises as mid-year promotion, equalize the loads between the elementary and senior high schools, arrange better floor plans and better movable equipment, avoid false economies, give extra pay for extra service, and insure a full return on every dollar.

The school children and the general public of this country are between two groups of racketeers. On one side is the highly organized "taxpayers" association, the leading spirits of which are tax-dodgers who send their children to private schools. On the other side are time-serving teachers and principals who are selfish and who draw the maximum amount of pay for the minimum amount of work. It is time for the cheated small taxpayers, the parents of American children, and the rank and file of principals and teachers to organize for militant action to insure the best interests of children and of the whole public rather than the favored few.

A FORWARD STEP IN SCHOOL FINANCING

ORVILLE C. PRATT, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SPOKANE, WASH.

A forward step in school financing demands that the tax base be broadened; that the general property tax be supplemented by other forms of taxation so that real estate will no longer carry its present impossible burden; and that all may again pay taxes in proportion to ability.

A second much needed forward step in educational financing is the equalization of educational opportunity and of taxation. In former times when agriculture was the chief occupation, wealth and population were distributed at least in rough proportion to each other; the supporting wealth back of a school child in one part of a state was not greatly different in amount from that back of a child in any other part of the state. With modern industrial development this has long since ceased to be true.

A third much needed step in school financing is the enlargement of the financial unit. Whatever may be thought of the county as an administrative school unit, it certainly is true that many present inequalities of school opportunity and taxation would disappear if the county had a uniform tax levy for school purposes. In some school districts in the state of Washington the tax rate is eighty times as high as in others, and the high-rate districts usually still have the poorer schools.

A fourth step needed in school financing is budgetary control. In the past, budget making has received altogether too little attention in the administration of schools. Administrators have been too much like the minister who took his text, straightway departed from it, and never came back to it. In rich districts, especially, relative values were not carefully weighed and balanced. Now, in these depression days, we are all in danger of having legitimate school activities ruthlessly cut off by ignorant but influential laymen placed on budgetary control boards.

Perhaps the chief weakness of a democracy is its inability to learn and to follow expert opinion. What we need to do far more than we have is to take a leaf from our leading industrial concerns. Without exception they maintain research laboratories for ascertaining present truth and for discovering new truth. Then they go to great pains to inform their stockholders about the progress made. The public generally constitutes our stockholders. What we do to inform patrons is incidental or, worse still, accidental. Many city systems have research departments, but these are too exclusively directed to teaching problems. Financial problems ought also to receive expert and prolonged study. Then the necessary machinery should be set up for acquainting the public with the facts.

The truth about school financing is fairly well agreed on by experts, but it is not well known among school people. A program such as this augurs well for the future. First we must know; then we must make known what we know. The latter is much the more difficult as a forward step in school financing.

EDUCATING THE PUBLIC TO UNDERSTAND SCHOOLS

CHARLES H. JUDD, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

There is a form of adult education which school systems should provide in order to insure their own preservation. It is the education of the people with regard to the changes which are taking place in American schools and with regard to the reasons for these changes. The failure of schools in the past to make clear what they are attempting to do has led to some of the disastrous retrenchments which are now being forced upon school systems during the present economic stringency.

School officers are likely to assume that everybody understands the reasons for the expansion of the curriculum and for the adoption of new methods of teaching. The fact is that the newer educational procedures are not always understood even by teachers. The ordinary parent is far less informed than are the teachers. The reason for the general lack of knowledge about education is that many of the changes which take place in schools occur gradually in response to social conditions which influence the curriculum and methods of teaching in subtle and indirect ways.

Examples of developments within the educational system which have resulted from the comparatively unobserved influence of great social forces are to be found in the American adoption of a unit educational system which contrasts sharply with the dual system common in Europe; in the reading methods of learning and teaching practised in American schools; and in the great expansion of our school population resulting from the industrial evolution of recent decades. The fact that the costs of education have mounted rapidly since 1910 is now widely advertised by critics of the schools, but the fundamental reasons for these costs are little understood.

If the need for education of the people in American communities is recognized, there naturally arises the question: How is this education to be provided? There seems to be only one real answer to this question. School administrators who are in intimate contact with the older members of the community must see to it that information is constantly transmitted to patrons of schools as to the kind of progress that is being aimed at by the revision of the curriculum and by changes in methods of teaching. The Department of Elementary School Principals could very advantageously devote some of the energy of its yearbook committees to the task of preparing in detail the types of information which citizens need to know.

The proposal which is here made is intended to emphasize the importance of attention to the large social problems which school officers need in these days to study and master. Too often school principals concentrate all their energies on problems of internal management. They should recognize the fact that someone has to keep up communication between the school and the general public. The teachers cannot do this, and the superintendent of schools is far less intimately acquainted with the patrons of schools than is the principal.

REPORT ON 1934 YEARBOOK

JOHN S. THOMAS, PRINCIPAL, CLIPPERT SCHOOL, DETROIT, MICH.

The 1934 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals is to develop the subject of *The Principal and Aids to Teaching*. To produce a yearbook during times of stress and difficulty demands the actively interested participation of all members of the Department.

The chief purpose of this yearbook is to provide a handbook for the use of principals. Previous yearbooks have given the principal collections of practical articles on administration, supervision, the community, and the libraries. This yearbook will compile effective ideas on the uses of the various aids to the teacher and the textbook.

Emphasis is placed deliberately on the use of different aids to provide possibilities for enriching the instructional program of the elementary school. During times when the broadened curriculum of the school is under attack, this yearbook will discuss means to provide more than a drab routine teaching of the three R's. Principals must be constantly alert to the possibilities available in teaching the core of the elementary curriculum thru a variety of materials and methods.

The proposed outline of the yearbook includes chapters on the following groups of subjects: maps, globes, and charts; mounted pictures, newspaper clippings, and magazine illustrations; posters, exhibits, displays, and museums; trips, excursions, and lectures; duplicating and mimeographing devices; stereopticons, balopticons, and lanterns; phonographs; silent and talking pictures; and radios. While these may not be all the aids to teaching, they are the ones that are used most frequently.

Principals are urged to begin the preparation of articles at an early date. Submission of outlines of proposed articles to the Editorial Committee is frequently of great assistance both to contributors and to the Committee. Members are asked to contribute articles which give practical answers to questions raised under the topics of the proposed yearbook outline.

WHICH WAY IS FORWARD?

WILLIAM C. KNOELK, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
MILWAUKEE, WIS.

The frontier-fostered concepts of individual action, of relief from economic and social restraint, of limitless amounts of "free" land and lumber, must be either abandoned or changed greatly. Extreme individualization has to give way to a more conscious group welfare.

Difficult as is the economic phase of this transition, the social—with its emotional concomitants—is positively tragic.

In attempting to make the rule of the majority square with reason and intelligence we find that we have neglected the principal factor—the attitude of the individual.

We may well start with the principle of preparing for change by teaching adjustment to change. This means that our pupils shall be taught and given—insofar as nature permits—physical, mental, and emotional health, and habits that will progressively accommodate the individuals to “make the greatest possible contribution to society and at the same time give them the greatest possible personal satisfaction.”

On the basis of this, the following plan for educating for greater social efficiency is suggested as the proper way forward:

(1) Education must be recognized as much wider than the school, and other agencies of education must also be made to fulfill the newer objectives.

(2) When the child is with us only thirty hours a week out of a 168-hour week and is in bed for, say, only fifty of the sixty-three that should be allotted to that item, what can we say of the false emotional stimulation that comes thru lurid scenes in the movie theater and thru tense situations broadcast over the radio?

(3) We must recognize in the classroom what the term “democracy” and training for democratic ideals implies.

(4) Is it not barely possible that what we deemed absolutely essential to an educated and well-prepared child in a democratic society was not at all imperative?

(5) We must have recognition of the emotional nature of the pupils in socialization and in stimulating the “immeasurable qualities” of school activities. Emotions and attitudes are more important in determining conduct than knowledge.

(6) As Wickman’s study indicates, the complaint, submissive, dependent behavior is no longer adequate.

(7) The symptoms displayed by the submissive pupil may indicate emotional maladjustments more imperatively in need of correction than the impertinence of the independent trouble-maker.

(8) We must have in the classroom recognition of the value of open-mindedness, tolerance, courage, fairness, and unselfishness. Greed is not scientific.

THE TEACHER LOOKS AT THE PRINCIPAL

JULIA L. ANDERSON, TIMOTHY O. HOWE SCHOOL, SUPERIOR, WIS.

Every principal should have vision. In our present era of democratic teaching it is most necessary for both teacher and principal to have a definite vision of what is to be accomplished. The architect plans a cathedral. The principal works with finer materials—the possibilities of children. The purposes are the building of character and guidance in living. The vision of the principal should extend even farther. He is the director of the many personalities in his school. Having vision the principal can generate courage, hope, enthusiasm, confidence, trust, and faith in his teachers.

The second quality I feel every principal should have is faith in his teachers. He should think of his teachers as specialists in their own line. He should trust his teachers and make them feel he really appreciates them. He should be constructive in his criticisms and see the forest beyond the trees.

The third quality should be mutual understanding between teacher and principal. Teaching is an invisible process. It is an influence of mind upon mind. This influence should be made positive thru the law of mutual understanding.

Fourth, every principal should have tolerance. Tolerance is to realize that to every human being, life is an individual and personal problem. It is to allow to each individual perfect freedom of thought and action, cultivating gratitude, patience, charity, and faith in his fellow workers.

WHICH WORLD?

AARON KLINE, PRINCIPAL, PULLMAN SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL

The last fifteen years have brought us radical changes in our schools. The "do not whisper, stay in your seat" attitude has given way to a freer, home-like atmosphere. The normal life of the child as found in our most intelligently managed homes has been brought into the school world. By this change both the school world and the world outside of the school have been made better for our children.

Educators, notably Dr. Meiklejohn of the University of Wisconsin, are now calling attention to another abnormal school world. In the school world attitudes toward certain virtues are made on the ideal plane. Honesty and truthfulness are abstract virtues never to be violated. In this make-believe school world unselfish service to mankind is exalted. Great feats of engineers and of financial barons are looked upon as evidences of the business world's devotion to public interests. Railroad companies and great industrial corporations are seen as unselfishly contributing to the needs of modern society.

Finally the young man is ready to leave this ideal make-believe school world to enter that other world of adult life for which he is supposed to be prepared. He soon discovers that he is in a strange world for which he is not prepared. Here he finds that service to humanity is generally not the unselfish kind he learned about in school. Dollar patriots get contracts for their companies at immense profits, politicians feed the poor with money from graft, and professional men move about for personal gain with little regard for opportunities of service.

Business acumen consists of ability to get greater profits for the corporation and still stay within the provisions of the law. Individual business honor hides behind boards of directors. Justice from courts and juries is of one brand for the poor and quite another for the rich.

What can be done about it? The school will not soon give up its idealism, nor will the world of adult life adopt the idealism of the school world. Since neither world will adopt the other in toto, is there an intermediate ground

that might be acceptable to both? If there is no intermediate ground will the business world permit the tax-supported free public schools to teach what is, in contrast to what should be?

Business is in a state of paralysis. Abundance of goods for consumption, and plenty of consumers, but we seem to be unable to bring the two together. For what part of this situation are the schools responsible?

Tax-supported schools have helped to solve other problems in our national life. Will the public permit them to help in this dilemma? Certainly the evils of business and adult life will not be cured unless the dangers that now exist are pointed out to the new generations.

MUSIC WITH HOMEMADE INSTRUMENTS

CHARLES C. WEIDEMANN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA,
LINCOLN, NEBR.

The present economic crisis is testing the resourcefulness of teachers in utilizing the common materials in their immediate environment as a means of instruction of youth. This is true in the field of music as it is in other subjects. One of the difficulties of organizing and promoting public-school instrumental music is the fact that musical instruments are relatively quite expensive. In the elementary school, the problem has been partially settled thru the commercial production of kindergarten rhythm bands and harmonica bands. An extension of the answer may be found in the direction of utilizing materials common to the everyday life of the child. Wood, pottery, paper, glass jars, bottles, rubber bands, bamboo, and iron are examples of materials that in one way or another may be made to produce musical sounds.

It is possible to construct as many as twenty instruments for a total cost not to exceed fifty cents. This fact alone makes its appeal to boards of education; but this is secondary to the prime fact that the child directly lives and enjoys the activities associated with the construction of an instrument of his own choice.

This movement is not new. Homemade musical instruments have been made for thousands of years, if the historical records of musical instruments in our museums are to be trusted. Furthermore, innumerable evidences of such instruments are in our midst, in the schools and homes of young people.

WHAT IS MENTAL HEALTH?

O. H. PLENZKE, ASSISTANT STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC
INSTRUCTION, MADISON, WIS.

It will be admitted that the attempted answer to the question does not rest upon the firm foundation of scholarly research. It is not a conclusion obtained by laboratory labor. Nor is it the answer of a specialist in mental health. Being devoid of correlations, deviations, and validities, the round-about definition here suggested is, at best, only a summary of open impressions openly arrived at.

The past two decades have witnessed a great extension in the training period for teachers. There is available an overwhelming mass of professional knowledge for the improvement of our craft. Methods have been refined. Planned supervisory programs have replaced hit-and-miss inspections. Attractive and practical textbooks are supplemented by splendid teaching helps. Administration is concerning itself more and more with the improvement of instruction. Under such favorable conditions one might expect teacher failures to approach zero. But, despite our progress in these lines, too many school people fail. There must be factors apart from preparation which are vital to success in school work.

It happens to be one of my duties to administrate the state certification laws. Annual reports upon the success of every applicant are received. Too frequently the report advises against reissuance of the certificate for reasons given. In some instances the sad fact of a dismissal is recorded. A graduate of a fine college or university, who should have made good, has lost out. Another hard-earned college degree and all the homes built thereupon come to an unhappy ending as far as teaching usefulness is concerned. You will insist that many dismissals are based upon excuses and trivialities rather than valid reasons. That is granted.

The state certification bureau reveals that many unfavorable reports consist of indefinite general terms such as poor personality, weak character, and other attributes which bear an unknown relationship to academic attainments. Analysis of these general descriptions indicates that the applicants may be slaves to prejudices, inhibitions, and fears. Their mind-set may be hardened against adaptation to changing conditions, in fact, their nervous system may be insulated with respect to society in general. They are bound to the beliefs and credos of bygone days, the guidance of new evidence notwithstanding. They cannot grow, i.e., increase their ability to meet and evaluate new situations. Others just cannot get along with people. Obviously, in these cases, an unhealthy mentality directs activity which throws them into conflict with reality and the everyday world. They are out of step and out of tune. Let us enumerate a few reported causes of failure resulting from unsocial attitudes and ways of thinking. Of course, they cover a wide range and permit only rough grouping. The first seem to grow out of failure to accept the fact that education is a cooperative enterprise in which all must function, not as rugged individualists but as components of interdependent levels and parts. This unfortunate inclination is reflected in the following criticisms taken from reports:

1. Will not cooperate with others. This shortcoming is the mode in the distribution.
2. Refuses to take suggestions.
3. Invites suggestions, listens to them, and then disregards them.
4. Considers his department the only important one in the school and displays little interest in matters of general student welfare.
5. Tries to hold students to unwarranted standards of performance, thus leading to high percentage of failures.
6. Cannot get along with co-workers.

Other criticisms appear to be outgrowths of fundamental weakness, lack of stamina, and vacillating judgment. Under this general heading we find reports such as:

1. Lack of confidence
2. Doesn't stand up under questioning
3. Inability to chart a course and follow it
4. Cannot settle matters and forget about them. Worries about the consequences of decisions made. This deplorable time-consuming trait brings on senility long before it is due.
5. Applicant is crushed and downhearted over poor test results. Here again, lack of confidence is the underlying defect.
6. Argues constantly with pupils
7. No ambition or initiative
8. Not resourceful in solution of problems
9. Pities himself
10. Too nervous, goes to pieces
11. Afraid to admit difficulty and too self-sufficient to seek help
12. Phlegmatic in every way.

Another barrier to success is due to faulty conception of our purposes. Many applicants receive negative ratings because of a distorted point of view. No basic philosophy of life or education is manifest. Comments upon this type are:

Unwillingness to abandon old beliefs, emphases, or methods. This person has no pioneer spirit, never experiments and is content to follow routine. The deficiency cannot be laid at the doors of training schools or mental inflexibility due to advancing age.

Still another type, deserving more pity than censure, is the teacher who, in addition to meeting the arduous responsibilities of teaching, enters into a solemn compact with himself to reconstruct the life of the community, purge it of all iniquity and make it safe for future generations. With all their sincerity and desire to do good, many of these crusaders have been relieved of teaching duties to devote their undivided time and enthusiasm to reforming the world. This sort seems to revel in the tactical error of opening up tense controversial issues in the classroom. While free inquiry must be respected the public has not yet approved classroom discussion of all economic, social, or moral issues, especially if the subject is pertinent to the locality. Zealots in these ranks court trouble by continually condemning that which they disavow. They forget that, according to character education studies, it is better to elucidate the good than to condemn the bad. The danger of over-aggressiveness in reforming community standards is plain, yet there is a sort of blurred mental state which sees the desired end but fails to comprehend consequences. Too many cut their careers by over-indulgence in reform activity.

One more type will conclude the list. There is a mentality which is absolute, unyielding and uncompromising. In the classroom he is plaintiff, judge, jury, and bailiff. The school doesn't exist for the pupils whose participation is about nil. Criticisms of this group are as follows:

1. Unsympathetic with parents
2. Treats pupils as a mass without regard for varying personalities

3. Unreasonably strict disciplinarian. Will have order at any cost
4. Resorts to ridicule and sarcasm
5. Will not concede anything. Does not recognize this is a give-and-take world
6. Insists upon prerogatives in the adjustment of difficulties.

You are correct in your assumption that the foregoing is not a positive or direct definition of mental health. Its focalization and analysis are negative—an attempt to show what mental health is not. The inexhaustible cases show that mental health is a composite of innumerable elements and that lack of it militates seriously against professional efficiency. Their fears, their prejudices, their unsocial reactions to their fellows, their ego-centric tendencies, their absolutism, their sealed minds, their defensive attitude, each in turn, arrest mental growth so indispensable in the cooperative scheme of organized school education. Mental health, I finally venture to say, is the antonym, the reverse of the undesirable traits and mental habits presented above.

What, if anything, can be done about it? The possible remedy or rehabilitation falls within the province of mental hygiene.

COORDINATION OF COMMUNITY AGENCIES FOR THE MENTAL HEALTH OF YOUNG PEOPLE

VIRGIL E. DICKSON, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
BERKELEY, CALIF.

Mental health is probably the most significant factor to be considered in the adjustment of behavior difficulties of youth in any community. I think it is not an exaggeration to say that there is almost unanimous agreement among students of social difficulties that if we are to reduce crime and misbehavior in a lasting way it must come thru a greater use of preventive measures than from measures of punishment. If we are to prevent the misbehavior of youth, therefore, we must study to discover the causes or the symptoms of trouble early enough to fit the behavior of the youth into constructive channels instead of allowing it to drift into destructive channels.

It was with this thought in mind that the heads of various departments dealing with youth in the city of Berkeley more than 12 years ago planned an organization for cooperative effort. This organization is called the Coordinating Council. The chiefs or heads of the following city departments are ex-officio members of this Coordinating Council: the Schools, the Police Department, the Health Department, the Recreation and Playgrounds Department, the Department of Charities and Social Welfare, the Judge of the Justice Court, the Chief of the Probation Office and Juvenile Court.

The purpose of this Coordinating Council is to study the community activities and interests of the city for the purpose of developing the best possible program for the proper guidance and control of youth in the city. The Council is a deliberative body or planning commission. It meets for one hour each week. Each department submits policies and plans of that department for suggestion and criticism. Each department may if it chooses submit prob-

lems that are difficult to solve. The Council has no executive or administrative authority whatsoever and never votes to determine what shall be the policy of any individual department. As a matter of fact, it exists only as a counseling group with no power to act except that which is embraced in each department separately. However, there sits at the council table each week the executive head of each department of the city government having official charge or control of the welfare of the youth of the city. Here rests the executive authority to do whatever the city can do for its youth.

Frequently agreements as to policies to be followed are worked out in the Council and the policies recorded in our minutes so that all departments may be familiar with the plans for community activity. Each department keeps its own records of cases of social adjustment but these records are freely exchanged between departments whenever occasion seems to warrant. This avoids much useless duplication.

Serious cases of maladjustment are brought before the Coordinating Council for discussion; the purpose being to develop a clearer understanding of all departments or a better method of handling these difficult cases. Case records are kept of successes or failures in each department together with the apparent causes for each. These become the bases for change of policy. The Council not only endeavors to educate the various departments in its own organization, but endeavors to give such education or spread such information as will be helpful in establishing a better community support among cooperating agencies and the general public.

During recent years partially, at least, thru the efforts of the Coordinating Council there has been made available thru the public-school system of the city for difficult cases of maladjustment of children and youth, the services of a psychiatrist, a physician, a psychologist, and a staff of social case workers. By means of this expert service it is hoped not only to prevent delinquency and misbehavior in the serious cases under study and treatment, but to keep such accurate records of causes of misbehavior, of successes and failures in treatment, that we may develop a better technic for the management of the youth of the community.

We believe that the Berkeley Coordinating Council, with such adaptations as are suitable to fit the needs of various cities or communities, is a step in the right direction for the development of a better mental health program among young people. The drifting process so commonly found, the quarrelsomeness and distrust between departments working in the same community, the overlapping of records and of activities so common in many cities, we believe can best be smoothed out by a coordinating council similar to the Berkeley plan.

We cannot hope to solve our problems by each going his own way or by the drifting process. This Council furnishes a social planning commission composed of the responsible heads and executives of the official social agencies of the community.

RESPONSIBILITY OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR THE MENTAL HEALTH OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

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In the face of our national emergency the only hope of security for our children is their security in adults. Are we preparing teachers who are emotionally mature enough to provide this sense of security for our children? Are classroom teachers being prepared to understand the emotional needs of the child? Altho mental hygiene training is vitally important for the classroom teacher, it is only a small part of the total picture. The most important service that we can give toward the mental health of the school child is thru our care of the mental health of the school teacher. Only stable, mature adults can develop stability and maturity in children.

The work of the Mental Hygiene Institute at the State Teachers College begins with the college freshmen. The first contact of these freshmen with the Mental Hygiene Institute comes thru a course in hygiene which is based entirely on their own problems—emotional, social, and physical. In the sophomore year these young people approach their study of psychology and mental hygiene entirely thru the problems of real children. Students have a practical opportunity to do remedial work with children.

This training impresses the student-teacher with the fact that he is not merely teaching subjectmatter but the total personality of the child. He learns to look upon the child's integration as his definite aim in education. The child's social adjustment is just as truly the teacher's responsibility as is his arithmetic. Likewise, our responsibility for the teacher's total personality is quite as great as our responsibility for his total training.

Discussions of children's problems lead to problems of pupil-teacher relationship, and the student-teacher is easily led to realize his responsibility for being a well-integrated person and for having the personality qualifications that lead to success in teaching. From the objective point of view of trying to understand the child's behavior, he arrives at the realization of his need to know more about the origin of his own behavior. At this point he finds adequately trained mental hygienists ready to help him with his personal problems.

The purpose of this set-up is to train teachers so that:

1. They may attain better insight into their own personalities.
2. They may have a proper sensitivity to the effects of the atmosphere of their own classrooms.
3. They may gain ability to handle mild problems that arise daily in the classroom.
4. They may gain ability to recognize incipient problems of a more serious nature and to cooperate with experts in the handling of these problems.

IMPORTANCE OF MENTAL HEALTH IN THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

W. R. DAVIES, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SUPERIOR, WIS.

Since I believe so thoroly that "as the principal, so the school" I would expect to find the mental health of a principal reflecting itself in the attitude of his school, including every individual pupil, teacher, and custodian under his direction. And this thing called building personality is no myth—it often forces itself upon you before you have been in the building a minute—in the attitude of the custodian, in the reaction of the teacher in the corridor as he greets you, in the whole manner of the group of children as they pass you by—yet this and more does not entirely express how fundamental is this expression of character in a school building. Like the more important and worthwhile things in life, you can feel it, rather than sense it, thru any of the other avenues of perception.

How then can a principal attain mental health for himself and a desirable personality for his building—a building one instinctively likes to enter?

First of all, by cultivating a calm philosophical outlook on life, and by facing the everyday problems of a principal in that spirit. Equanimity is a wonderful asset for one who would direct the activities of a school. It is the very trait that many a parent, teacher, or pupil does not expect or want to find when they come to the office to explode or to receive punishment. It need not mean lack of force or the inability to reach a decision and stick to it, but this characteristic has meant the difference between the success or failure of many a school man or woman.

The second attribute of a principal who has real mental health is an unbounded enthusiasm for the activities of the school, whether of the regular classroom or extracurriculum type. It offsets, in a measure, the equanimity which is so desirable in a principal's actions toward pupils, parents, teachers, and custodians. If the principal is not vitally concerned, then no one in the building is apt to get enthusiastic about the task of directing children in their activities. And the wise principal when he finds this enthusiasm waning will seek complete rest and relaxation in order that he may return to his work with an enthusiasm that will be contagious and which will give his school pep and spirit.

The mentally well principal will, in the third place, possess and keep a sublime faith in the potentialities of each of his pupils and teachers. The worst symptom in the lag of mental health will be the irritation produced by the mere presence of children about him. Here it is of utmost importance that the principal get a new grip on things, so that he will think of the potential good and in a measure discredit the negative tendencies of teacher and pupils.

Again, perhaps the finest indication of real mental alertness manifests itself in just being human. How this quality is appreciated by parents, teachers, and pupils! Those with whom you come in contact may admire you for your ability to run the school, but they will love you only as you are human.

Finally, no one engaged in the work of a teacher of teachers, as well as of pupils, can run a real school unless he has a firm belief in the ultimate good of human existence, the progressive improvement of humankind thru education, and in the American dream of a better, richer, and happier life for all our citizens of every rank. Without such an outlook all else is in vain. One who lives intimately with throbbing, vigorous life, and still is unable to appreciate the beauty and grandeur of it all, is ill in mind and soul, and in need of the physician.

MENTAL HEALTH FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE DOCTOR OF MEDICINE

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Most mental illness can be thought of as the sum of a long series of faulty adaptations to life situations. If this be true there is but one place to interrupt the forging of this binding chain and that is at its inception. This business of nipping these pathological processes in the bud is one of the major interests and responsibilities of the mental hygiene movement. Activity such as this can be thought of as preventive but is more rightfully considered as therapeutic since it consists largely in the treatment of so-called behavior disorders in children. This is the element in mental hygiene which is clinical and which has called for the formation of child guidance clinics, behavior clinics, and research organizations which are studying the foundations of personality in infancy and childhood. Such organizations are manned, as a rule, by specially trained personnel such as psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychiatric social workers.

But there is another element in mental hygiene which lies deeper than this and is preventive in the truest sense of the word and this factor is so clearly linked to education as to have become inseparable from it. In this sense mental hygiene is far more than the prevention of mental illness. It is a way of life. It is creative in the positive sense, and has to do with the building of social habits, the finding and fostering of creative tendencies, the development of those elements within the personality which are considered by our contemporary society as wholesome and useful.

Man, uneducated, uninfluenced, is a vast inchoate reservoir of diverse and often conflicting strivings. Potentially he is a killer, a thief, a wanton brute. He also may be a well-mannered, safe-to-meet-on-the-street sort of a person. Whatever he becomes is partly a matter of circumstance and of what is demanded of him. He is limited here and prodigally endowed there according to the configuration of his genetic or hereditary background. Too often there is set for him a sort of standardized social pattern into which he is expected to fit. Home, school, society expect performance according to some poorly defined norm. Whenever there is too great a discrepancy between the capacity for achievement on the one hand and the demands for performance from

family or school or society on the other, there will be trouble unless the source of the incapacity can be arrived at, understood, and allowed for, and the other potentialities of the individual developed so as to compensate the inadequacy.

Not that all incapacities and disabilities arise out of genetic determinants. There are few, if any, hereditary factors which in themselves alone determine character traits or, as a psychiatrist would prefer to say, behavior characteristics. There is ever present the potent force of environmental influence. The neurotic character is perhaps constitutionally disposed but certainly environmentally determined. Many individuals demonstrate in their infancy and childhood a behavior constellation which indicates the neurotic disposition yet their future as to sickness or health—both physically and mentally—depends very largely upon the type of environment with which they must cope. If this environment can include understanding of their needs, their disabilities, their fears and conflicts—if it can provide a healthy background for physical and emotional development their future will become the more secure. As this is accomplished society will have taken a major step toward the solution of the vast problems of mental illness and social unfitness in general.

In this second phase, then, mental hygiene is largely a matter of education and as such becomes, essentially, the province of the educator. Today, progressive education, with its acceptance of the task of building the emotional as well as the intellectual structure of the personality, is confronted by the forces of reaction. Frequently, the so-called need for economy but masks the more fundamental antagonisms to the newer developments. Society continues to expend countless millions giving custodial care to its misfits, the mentally ill and the criminals, and at the same time interferes with the development of the only rational program for reduction of these classes. I am not one of those who count all criminals insane yet there is ample evidence to indicate that a goodly number—perhaps as high as 40 percent—show pathological deviation from so-called normal intellectual and emotional attributes.

Paralleling the problem of the criminal is that of the so-called insane, the name given to those persons so ill mentally as to make social adaptation impossible. Their number is legion. In Colorado the doors of the state mental hospital have been closed to new admissions because it is so overcrowded. In this country there are more beds devoted to the care of the mentally ill than there are for all of the other sick and ailing lumped together. In view of this who can deny that mental illness is a major health problem? Furthermore, it is only too true that the great bulk of individuals suffering from such conditions never enter mental hospitals.

With these facts in mind we must ask ourselves where lies the solution to this problem. Is there a rational hope for the development of a cure or of cures for the insane and neurotic individuals? The answer is yes—in part, for, of the insane, approximately 30 percent suffer from organic illness which is potentially remedial by medical treatment. Moreover, with the new analytic approach, the psychoneuroses are distinctly treatable altho it is highly questionable whether treatment is now relatively successful in more than 50 percent of the cases. Also, treatment of this type is so expensive and time-con-

suming as to be prohibitive to all but a very few. On the other hand, 70 percent of the insane suffer not from organic illness but from defective heredity plus inimical environment. This group, combined with the vast number of psychoneurotics who, either thru lack of funds or native equipment, cannot avail themselves of the best therapy, makes up the great bulk of the mentally ill. This is the mass which really makes of mental illness a social problem. From the social standpoint there is no doubt but that the ultimate answer lies in prevention. Treatment of disease is the province of the physician but prevention is the common responsibility of all. Prevention is not only a matter of instituting safeguards but of mass education. Prevention of mental illness in particular must be in addition a matter for thoro and widespread study and research. It must encourage the development of a discipline which allows for rational and controlled experimentation. The only pathology demonstrable in the great bulk of the mentally ill is psychopathology. Every indication points to the probability that this pathology is preventable thru the building of sound and adequate mental, physical, and social habits. The building of habits is accomplished largely thru education and the breaking of habits as well. The ways and means whereby disabilities and defects may be discounted and the individual capacities developed in children of good and bad heredity alike constitute the major problem in education. Experiment is indicated since there are few, if any, charted ways or tested principles. Above all, if the mental hygiene movement is to succeed and if child guidance and progressive education are to fulfill the hope which we have pinned upon them there must be the most intimate and wholehearted cooperation.

My introduction to this field came thru medicine to psychiatry to ortho or preventive psychiatry. Later I learned about the developments in the field of education and after witnessing some of these and learning first-hand about them it has become impossible for me to separate child guidance on the one hand and progressive education on the other. In their fundamental aspects they are essentially one and the same. The greatest need of the present perhaps is a universal recognition of this fact so that psychiatrists and educators may meet on the common plane of the classroom and playground and clinic to study jointly the problem at hand.

CONDITIONS OF SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT CAUSING MENTAL ILL HEALTH OF CHILDREN

CATHARINE ANNA CALDWELL, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, SCRANTON, PA.

The White House Conference Reports tell us that one of every three apparently normal children of self-sustaining families is sufficiently mal-adjusted mentally or socially to necessitate special treatment. It points out that at a cost three times that of public education five hundred thousand are today being cared for in our institutions for the anti-social and the socially inadequate.

We know that the schools are not to blame for all of this, but we must assume part of it. We are the only organization which gets all children of all classes from early childhood. The hopes of this troubled world are entrusted to us. Are we preparing them to understand life and to meet democracy's problems?

Would that I were in a position to place in the hands of everyone interested in childhood *Psychiatry in Education* written by Dr. V. V. Anderson of the Anderson School, Stattsburgh-on-Hudson, New York.

He says: "Each year seventy thousand new patients enter state hospitals for insane in this country, joining that large army of between four and five hundred thousand individuals confined as mental cases. The conditions from which these individuals suffer are largely the outgrowth of personality problems in youth, issues that are recognizable by teachers and parents as 'nervousness' but commonly not dealt with intelligently. If mental hygiene principles are applied, prevention of this insanity is in a large measure possible."

He shows by the case method how this is to a considerable degree accomplished in his experimental school.

When we consider some schools from the standpoint of mental hygiene what do we find?

More children than dogs have been ruined by blunders in training. Some are antagonized thru too much domination, going into life with "moral crutches instead of moral nerve." The Prussian type of discipline is so much easier for the teacher, so much more spectacular and sometimes achieves an effect admired by principals—the type which is not represented here today.

In *The Normal Mind*, Dr. William H. Burnham says, "In the light of our war experience and the modern study of psychiatry, the need of a thorough reconstruction of the discipline of the schools from the point of view of morals and mental hygiene is strangely emphasized."

Dr. Burnham frowns upon that type of discipline which zealously cares for the academic needs and loses sight of the integration of the personality.

There are schools where the discipline is even more destructive. The responsibility for behavior is placed upon the teacher instead of upon the pupil resulting in a most unhealthful teacher-pupil relationship.

Other unhygienic procedures known to have been used are demotion because of non-conformity; use of fear and punishment as motivating forces; indulgence in sarcasm, nagging, and other mental cruelty.

Such abuses of one's authority degrade the personalities of students and may result in permanent harm. Adults think little of the damage that is sometimes done to the child who is labeled "dumb-bell." Attitudes of inferiority may be formed which will cause even a child of potentialities to become a misfit for life.

One may have a university degree and know little of the development of personality traits in children. And what happens? Sometimes the symptoms of problems are considered without looking into causes.

If the child is not guided in the school environment to become socially useful and able to cope with realities where will he receive this guidance and what will prevent his becoming an enemy to society?

"But," someone says, "the public will not stand for these 'fads and frills.'" Then, we say, we realize the necessity today for adjustments and readjustments, in education as in banking. Society used to tell the schools what it wanted. Now we must educate society as to what it needs and graciously give up the real frills.

If in this mechanical age there is no provision for education for leisure, it is not difficult to prophesy that there will be a large percentage of increase in the psychopathic population.

A danger to the mental health of children is sometimes in our systems of grouping or in our methods of teaching, and sometimes in our testing. Obviously, it is not well from the standpoint of mental happiness for those children who are from abnormal homes and deprived of associations with well-adjusted children to be grouped together. How often we find the unhappy so-called problem children herded together in this section with little remedial work being done and less chance for their experiencing success. For there are "problem" teachers who feel that they are not doing their duty unless a large percentage of this group are failures. Tho these children of such a different level of ability may have received the same identical examination as the high I. Q's they find themselves with no credit for the achievement which they have made.

This brings us to the need for curriculum reconstruction. Present conditions have reemphasized that unless we bring about a sufficient degree of flexibility to provide for individual differences and halt the disaster brought on, social inadequacy now extant in some states will become insolvent.

We want to know what is being done for the exceptional children. Tax-dodging corporations should be shown the lack of economy in not providing for the crippled, the deaf, those with sight and speech defects, the sub-normal and backward children, and the gifted or mentally accelerated, who, by the way, should have gifted teachers and an enriched curriculum. If we are a democracy with "justice for all" the care which these underprivileged need will be provided even tho the state governor is fanatical about road-building.

It was Emerson who said that the greatest human enterprise is the care and the culture of men.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis, Minnesota

Executive Committee Meeting, Monday Morning, February 27, 1933

The first meeting of the Executive Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association was held in the parlor of President Elizabeth McCormick's suite, Nicollet Hotel.

The following persons were present: Elizabeth McCormick, president; John S. Thomas, representing Earl R. Laing, first vicepresident; Margaret C. Mackintosh, fourth vicepresident; M. Emma Brookes, Herbert C. Hansen, and Cassie F. Roys of the Executive Committee; Aaron Kline, retiring member of the Editorial Committee; and Eva G. Pinkston, executive secretary.

President McCormick called the group to order. The usual procedure of business was suspended and a discussion of the Chicago program took place. It was decided to have only one department breakfast at the summer meeting and this to take place on Monday. This change was made so that the members of the department would have an opportunity to attend their state breakfasts on Tuesday.

The representatives of the Chicago meeting were strongly urged not to allow our hosts to prepare for lavish entertainment of their guests.

A motion was made by Miss Brookes and seconded by Miss Mackintosh to suspend the reading of the minutes of the Atlantic City meeting, each member having read them in the October issue of the *National Elementary Principal*. Motion carried.

There was a discussion of different ways to increase the membership in the Department. A motion was made by Miss Mackintosh and seconded by Miss Roys that wherever conditions warranted it in certain states that district enrolment chairmen be appointed instead of state chairmen. Motion carried.

A motion was made by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss Brookes that a letter be sent to all state enrolment chairmen expressing appreciation for their cooperation and for the splendid work done in enrolling and interesting members in joining the Department this past year. Motion carried.

A motion was made by Miss Roys and seconded by Miss Brookes that the Executive Committee extend to Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, a vote of appreciation for his very excellent work on the bulletins for this past year.

Letters and telegrams expressing regrets that they couldn't be present were read from Earl Laing, A. B. Heacock, Lillian Towne, and H. B. Norton.

John S. Thomas, chairman of the 1934 yearbook, reported that the thirteenth yearbook will be as follows:

1. The name will be *The Principal and Aids to Teaching*.
2. It will contain eleven chapters.
3. Instead of sub-topics under each heading there will be specific questions.
4. Generally speaking there will be modifications and change of plans so that in the future better and better yearbooks are produced.
5. Yearbook to be more and more a handbook in evolving and administering aids to teaching.
6. Leaflet will be sent to all prospective contributors soon after 1933 yearbook is out.

Mr. Thomas presented the following recommendations of the Yearbook Committee:

- a. Follow the plan of this year and have only one meeting. This meeting to precede the meeting of the Department of Superintendence.
- b. Suggest that a report be prepared by Editorial Committee and such report be read at Chicago by president or executive secretary.
- c. Individual stationery be given each member of committee.

Mr. Thomas expressed the appreciation of the committee for the much extra work done at headquarters.

A motion was made by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss Brookes that the report be accepted and appreciation be expressed for the splendid work done. The Executive Committee realized the extra burden caused by having only one meeting. Motion carried.

No action was taken about recommendations of Editorial Committee.

Meeting adjourned.

Executive Committee Meeting, Tuesday Morning, February 28, 1933

The second meeting was held in the parlor of President Elizabeth McCormick's suite, Nicollet Hotel.

The following persons were present: Elizabeth McCormick, president; John S. Thomas, representing Earl R. Laing, first vicepresident; Margaret C. Mackintosh, fourth vicepresident; M. Emma Brookes, Herbert C. Hansen, and Cassie F. Roys of the Executive Committee; Aaron Kline, retiring member of the Editorial Committee; Bess Clement, new member of the Editorial Committee; Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research department of the National Education Association; and Eva G. Pinkston, executive secretary.

The president called the meeting to order. The minutes of the meeting on Monday, February 27, 1933, were read and approved.

A motion was made by Miss Brookes and seconded by Mr. Hansen that the report of the executive secretary be accepted and appreciation expressed for the detailed way in which it was presented. Motion carried.

An informal discussion was held about plans for the summer meeting at Chicago. Mr. Kline was again instructed not to allow the principals of Chicago to embarrass themselves by planning lavish entertainments. He was asked to keep prices within the reach of all. At the request of the president the Chicago principals were to be asked to take full charge of the annual banquet.

A motion was made by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss Roys that the Department of Elementary School Principals offer to the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education, space in the *National Elementary Principal* for June, if they wished to use it. Motion carried.

There was a discussion about the sale of previous yearbooks. A motion was made by Mr. Thomas and seconded by Miss Mackintosh that yearbooks previous to the last issue be reduced in price and that a sliding scale be used. The price is to be determined by the executive secretary. Motion carried.

Miss Bess Clement of the Editorial Committee gave a brief report of the tentative plans and titles selected for future yearbooks:

1935—*The Principal and the School-Life Activities*

1936—*Leadership in the Principalship*

A motion was made by Mr. Hansen and seconded by Miss Roys that Miss Clement's report be accepted. Motion carried.

Due to the absence of Miss Shove, Mr. Thomas read her report of the work of the Editorial Committee of this year. Miss Roys made a motion, seconded by Miss Mackintosh, that Miss Shove's report be accepted and hearty appreciation be expressed to the committee for the work done and that the report be made a part of the minutes. Motion carried.

Miss Shove's report was:

February 27, 1933.

Report of Editorial Committee—1933

Helen B. Shove, Chairman

Madame President, Executive Committee Members, Executive Secretary:

Being unable to be present, I desire to make a brief statement for the Editorial Committee having the Twelfth (1933) Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. The book is ready for the press with but one exception, after intensive work on the part of the committee, Dr. Frank Hubbard and assistants in the Research office. Some over a hundred manuscripts were received from the school and library fields. What suited the purposes of the Yearbook have been welded into a unified volume which, we hope, will interest and serve both school and library folks.

We have labored better to organize and reduce the page volume of the book. We have tried a simple evaluation sheet which may be improved the coming year.

We believe the method of having all manuscripts read and evaluated by each member before reaching Dr. Hubbard is an advance over our previous method. The three-day meeting, previous to the Superintendence convention, with such preparation, has seemed most fruitful and inspiring. Dr. Hubbard and the Research Division have been exceedingly helpful at all times. The executive secretary, Miss Pinkston, has advised constructively and has done a great deal to promote the best interests of the Yearbook thru the *Bulletin*.

The committee members, Aaron Kline and John Thomas, have been tireless in their efforts for the Department and have given a service that few can fully appreciate. The broad experience, unselfish interest, and sane leadership of Aaron Kline should be utilized by the Department as he concludes his splendid service on this committee. The plan and organization for the 1934 Yearbook under the leadership of John Thomas promises outstanding success.

The new member, Miss Bess Clement, gave real help at her initial meeting with the committee and promises unusual abilities and interest.

The chairman wishes to express appreciation for the opportunities of service which membership on this committee offers, but regrets that a combination of the times and unusual circumstances has not permitted a greater contribution. Anticipating the coming year as one which will challenge and interest, and, we trust, be of increasing value to the Department, I am

Most respectfully yours,

(Signed, Helen B. Shove)

HELEN B. SHOVE, *Chairman*, 1933

JOHN THOMAS

AARON KLINE

A motion was made by Miss Brookes and seconded by Miss Roys that the Department of Elementary School Principals consider the advisability of holding a joint meeting with the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction at the summer meeting in Chicago and appoint Miss Mackintosh of New York to confer with Dr. Hosic and Mr. Hansen to select an impartial chairman from Chicago. Motion carried.

After a discussion of the various ways of holding the election of officers a motion was made by Miss Brookes and seconded by Miss Roys that the present method of the election be changed so as to vote by ballot. Motion carried.

A motion was made by Mr. Hansen, seconded by Mr. Thomas, that the executive secretary be instructed to make a plan of honoring people who have been longest in the service, this person or persons to be the guests of the Department at the banquet at the Chicago meeting. Motion carried.

Miss Mackintosh offered resolutions from the New York City Principals Association. Mr. Hansen made a motion, seconded by Miss Roys, that these resolutions be accepted and be given publicity in the June issue of the *Bulletin*. Motion carried.

These resolutions were read by the executive secretary at the Wednesday afternoon, March 1, program of the Department.

Resolutions from the Boston Principals Association, sent by Miss Lillian Towne, were read by the executive secretary. Miss Roys made a motion, seconded by Mr. Thomas, that appreciation be expressed to the Boston club for their thoughtfulness and their interest in the Department.

Motion was made by Mr. Thomas and seconded by Miss Brookes that Miss Roys, Miss Mackintosh, and the executive secretary be intrusted to write a letter to the Minneapolis Principals Forum and chairmen of committees expressing appreciation for the arrangements made by them for the meetings of the Department and for their lovely hospitality. Motion carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Chicago, Illinois

The Department of Elementary School Principals held two general sessions in the Upper Tower Ballroom, Stevens Hotel. The beautiful musical programs which preceded each session were given by an elementary-school orchestra composed of 250 members from the Kay and Ella Flagg Young Schools, directed by E. H. Bergh, and a rhythm band from the Lowell School, composed of 200 kindergarten children, directed by Mary Helen Blaney.

W. R. Davies presented President McCormick with a gavel made of the steering gear of the first trading vessel to enter Lake Superior. The gift was made possible thru the courtesy of one of Superior's old residents.

The topics and speakers for the meetings were as follows:

First Session, Monday Afternoon, July 3, 1933

A Symposium on Mental Hygiene

WHAT IS MENTAL HEALTH? O. H. Plenzke, assistant state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.

COORDINATION OF COMMUNITY AGENCIES FOR THE MENTAL HEALTH OF YOUNG PEOPLE, Virgil E. Dickson, assistant superintendent of schools, Berkeley, Calif.

RESPONSIBILITY OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR THE MENTAL HEALTH OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS, Caroline B. Zachry, director, Mental Hygiene Institute, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N. J.

IMPORTANCE OF MENTAL HEALTH IN THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL, W. R. Davies, superintendent of schools, Superior, Wis.

MENTAL HEALTH FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE DOCTOR OF MEDICINE, R. A. Jefferson, director, Milwaukee Mental Hygiene Council, Milwaukee, Wis.

CONDITIONS OF SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT CAUSING MENTAL ILL HEALTH OF CHILDREN, Catharine Anna Caldwell, public schools, Scranton, Pa.

REPORT ON 1934 YEARBOOK, John S. Thomas, principal, Clippert School, Detroit, Mich.

Second Session, Wednesday Afternoon, July 5, 1933

Meeting the Emergency

THE JOINT COMMISSION ON THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION, John K. Norton, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

THE CHILDREN OF THE DEPRESSION, Joseph Rosier, president, National Education Association; and president, State Teachers College, Fairmont, W. Va.

BUSINESS MEETING

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES

A delicious "brunch" was served Monday, 11:00 a. m., at the Chicago Woman's Club. At this delightful family get-together there were more than two hundred present. President Elizabeth McCormick in her greetings stressed the importance of cooperation and organization, especially during these trying times. She announced the following nominating committee: Cassie F. Roys, Omaha, Nebraska, chairman; A. B. Heacock, Los Angeles, California; L. Daisy Hammond, Dayton, Ohio; E. G. Grafton, Dallas, Texas; and Ellen M. Sanders, Chicago, Illinois.

In the Spanish Room of the Medical and Dental Arts Building, 185 North Wabash Avenue, where the Chicago Principals have their club rooms, the semi-annual dinner was held at 6:00 p. m., July 4. The national holiday motif was carried out. The beautiful surroundings and a splendidly arranged program made this occasion one of the interesting events of the convention.

On Wednesday afternoon, July 5, the Chicago Principals were at home to visiting principals from 4 to 6 in their club rooms. An enjoyable skit from the "Strangest Interlude" was presented. Refreshments were served.

At the business meeting on Wednesday afternoon, July 5, the president gave an inspiring talk about keeping the curriculum as it is today. She showed how subjects which are considered by some as fads and frills are so essential for life. Reports from the following committees were read and approved: Committee on International Relations, Mason A. Stratton, chairman; Committee on Necrology, M. Emma Brookes, chairman; Committee on Resolutions, A. B. Heacock, chairman; Report of 1935 Yearbook, Bess Clement, chairman.

Due to the absence of John S. Thomas, chairman of the 1934 Yearbook, Frank W. Hubbard, associate director of research of the National Education Association, was asked by President McCormick to report the progress of the present yearbook and to tell about the 1934 Yearbook. He called particular attention to the helpfulness to principals which the 1933 Yearbook will render and he urged members of the Department to send in articles for the 1934 Yearbook.

On motion of Cassie F. Roys, Omaha, Nebraska, chairman of the Nominating Committee, seconded by William E. Hendrie, New York, N. Y., the following officers were elected for the ensuing year: Aaron Kline, Chicago, Illinois, president; Elizabeth McCormick, Superior, Wisconsin, first vicepresident; Mason A. Stratton, Atlantic City, New Jersey, second vicepresident; M. Emma Brookes, Cleveland, Ohio, third vicepresident; Ernest L. Markley, Wheeling, West Virginia, fourth vicepresident; Margaret C. Mackintosh, Brooklyn, New York, fifth vicepresident; Executive Committee: A. B. Heacock, Los Angeles, California, Herbert C. Hansen, Chicago, Illinois, Cassie F. Roys, Omaha, Nebraska, and Earl R. Laing, Detroit, Michigan.

The president directed the executive secretary to read the telegram received from the Honorable John Boyd Thacher, mayor of the city of Albany, inviting the Department to hold its next meeting in that city. The executive secretary was instructed to write Mr. Thacher thanking him for the invitation.

Meeting adjourned.

Executive Committee Meeting, Monday Morning, July 3, 1933

The meeting was called to order by President McCormick in Room 451-A, Stevens Hotel. The following persons were present: Elizabeth McCormick, president; Earl R. Laing, first vicepresident; Lillian M. Towne, second vicepresident; H. B. Norton, third vicepresident; Mason A. Stratton, fifth vicepresident; M. Emma Brookes, A. B. Heacock, Herbert C. Hansen, and Cassie F. Roys of the Executive Committee; and Eva G. Pinkston, executive secretary.

Before any business was transacted Earl R. Laing introduced Lillian M. Towne, who presented to President McCormick, a gavel made from the railing of a stairway of a school built in Boston in 1792. It was the first public school of more than one room. (For story of the gavel see October *Bulletin*.)

Minutes of the Minneapolis meeting were omitted on motion of Herbert C. Hansen, seconded by Cassie F. Roys. Meeting recessed to 9 a. m., Tuesday, so that group could attend "brunch" at the Chicago Woman's Club.

Executive Committee Meeting, Tuesday Morning, July 4, 1933

The second meeting of the Executive Committee was held in room 451-A, Stevens Hotel.

The following persons were present: Elizabeth McCormick, president; Earl R. Laing, first vicepresident; Lillian M. Towne, second vicepresident; H. B. Norton, third vicepresident; Mason A. Stratton, fifth vicepresident; M. Emma Brookes,

A. B. Heacock, Herbert C. Hansen, and Cassie F. Roys of the Executive Committee; and Eva G. Pinkston, executive secretary.

President McCormick called the meeting to order and asked for a reading of the minutes of the previous meeting. Minutes of the meeting of July 3 were read and approved.

The report of the executive secretary was read and discussed. An expression of appreciation of the work done at headquarters the past year was made in a motion by Miss Brookes and seconded by Mr. Hansen. Motion carried.

In studying the problems of finance, the Budget Committee was asked to make a proposed budget for the Department for the year 1933-34. Herbert C. Hansen, chairman of the Budget Committee, submitted the following report:

BUDGET 1933-34

Total estimated receipts.....	\$17,500
Office expenditures and salaries.....	\$7,000
Travel	1,000
Printing and postage.....	7,500
Permanent fund and annuities.....	1,200
Insurance and contingent fund.....	800
	<hr/>
	\$17,500

On motion of Mr. Laing, seconded by Miss Brookes, the report of the Budget Committee for 1933-34 was approved.

Mr. Heacock asked that plans be studied for paying of the expenses of the Executive Committee to the summer and winter meetings. He suggested that letters be written to boards of education and superintendents stating the importance of the attendance of the Executive Committee and asking that they pay the expense of the person who has been honored in their city.

Motion by Mr. Laing, seconded by Mr. Heacock, that the executive secretary be directed to exercise every possible economy in publishing the yearbook and the *Bulletin*. Types of economies suggested were—bids on publications, time of publishing, number of pages, graphs, cuts, etc. Motion carried. On motion of Mr. Heacock, seconded by Mr. Stratton, it was ordered that for this next year the time of publishing the yearbook be left to the executive secretary. Motion carried.

Motion by Miss Brookes, seconded by Mr. Norton, that the financial reports for 1932 and 1933 be placed in the October *Bulletin*. Motion carried.

Motion by Miss Towne, seconded by Miss Roys, that the sale of yearbooks be left to the discretion of the Executive Secretary. Motion carried.

Motion by Mr. Heacock, seconded by Miss Brookes, that the price of the bulletin, *The National Elementary Principal*, be twenty-five cents as long as it is a thirty-two page publication. Motion carried.

Motion by Mr. Hansen, seconded by Mr. Heacock, that a vote of appreciation be sent to those who have made possible the many fine changes in the bulletin, expressing at the same time the hearty cooperation of the executive committee. Motion carried.

Motion by Miss Roys, seconded by Mr. Laing, that a letter be sent to Dr. George F. Zook, United States commissioner of education, asking that a study be made of elementary education of the United States, similar to the study on secondary education recently completed by his office. Motion carried.

President McCormick explained fully the reasons as to why a joint program with the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction was not given at this time. She expressed the hope that such a meeting might be arranged sometime in the near future.

Miss Towne told of the suggestion by Dr. Emerson that a committee be formed for the study of alcohol and narcotics and made a motion seconded by Mr. Stratton that the Department of Elementary School Principals ask to be represented on Dr. Emerson's Committee. Motion carried.

Motion by Miss Roys, seconded by Miss Brookes, that the executive secretary write the New York City Principals' Association commending them for the fine contribution made by the Committee on Health of their association, and expressing to them thanks for copies received. Motion carried.

Motion by Miss Brookes, seconded by Miss Roys, that appreciation be expressed to our president, Elizabeth McCormick, for the efficient service which she has rendered the Department this year and that she be commended for the worthwhile and instructive programs which she arranged for both the Minneapolis and Chicago meetings. Motion carried.

A motion was made by Miss Brookes and seconded by Mr. Heacock, that a vote of appreciation be given the principals of Chicago for their delightful hospitality and that they be thanked for their personal service in making this meeting most profitable and enjoyable. Motion carried.

A motion was made by Miss Brookes and seconded by Miss Towne, that an expression of appreciation be sent to the Evanston Teachers Association for inviting the officers of the Department of Elementary School Principals to their enjoyable reception and tea at the Shawnee Country Club on Sunday, July 2. Motion carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION grew out of a meeting of the Froebel Institute of North America, which met in connection with the Association's meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, in 1884. See *Proceedings*, 1884:74.

The name of the Department was changed in 1927 to the Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Mrs. Livia Youngquist Peterson, 328 Dempster Street, Evanston, Ill.; *Vicepresident*, Norma Smith, State Supervisor of Elementary Education, Montgomery, Ala.; *Secretary*, Edith Alden Rosa, 401 Fullerton Parkway, Chicago, Ill.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and records of its meetings will be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1884: 74	1894:679-704	1904:415-437	1914:405-420	1924:583-596
1885:349-368	1895:510-560	1905:341-372	1915:629-671	1925:478-503
1886:500-559	1896:471-514	1906:626-629	1916:289-310	1926:497-527
1887:331-361	1897:584-613	1907:455-474	1917:417-429	1927:457-472
1888:323-359	1898:589-619	1908:501-541	1918:151-155	1928:411-433
1889:441-482	1899:530-574	1909:437-456	1919:171-178	1929:425-448
1890:543-581	1900:365-402	1910:375-415	1920:191-202	1930:367-389
1891:527-568	1901:500-539	1911:477-515	1921:461-469	1931:467-481
1892:251-303	1902:409-429	1912:607-632	1922:969-985	1932:407-414
1893:321-381	1903:377-406	1913:425-445	1923:705-718	

HIGH LIGHTS OF THE DENVER CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

MARY E. LEEPER, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD
EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Lights strongly influence our daily lives. There are *guiding lights* that hold us to the safe course and show us the way just as the high, clear and strong lights point out the path for the night mail planes. There are *protecting lights* that tell us when to stop and change and go, the red, yellow, and green traffic lights. There are *inspirational lights*, warming and comforting, like candlelight and the light of an open fire. All of these lights we found in Denver.

There were many guiding lights pointing out the safest courses for teachers of young children to follow. These were found in the morning spent in visiting the Denver schools, the educational and commercial exhibits, the group discussions where there was active participation by many teachers.

The discussion on reading disabilities was of intense interest to many.

The discussion of the conference period particularly emphasized the needs of the individual child, the need of the teacher to organize her own thinking, and the dangers of routine criticism.

The group discussing creative music not only listened to excellent talks on underlying theories but saw instruments made by children in the Denver schools and heard songs whose words and music had developed from the experiences and emotions of those children.

The discussion on meeting the present emergency in education brought out studies of the various methods used by different communities to retain kindergartens when their existence was threatened. These case studies came from Massachusetts, Minnesota, California, Oklahoma and Wisconsin. All pointed to the fact that a community truly aroused to the needs of little children will *not* let their kindergartens close. It was at this conference that Mary Dabney Davis of the Office of Education urged every primary and kindergarten teacher to undertake some piece of systematic research in order that she might have real facts concerning children's learnings and development to place before the citizens of her own community. Dr. Davis volunteered to assist in such an undertaking anyone who would write to her and ask for help.

At this same conference Miss Wahlert of St. Louis, said:

Today more than ever, parents and teachers must get together to think in terms of child welfare, take an inventory of what the home can do—where the school must supplement if children are to come thru this era with fewer scars. Parents have had no preparation for these rapid social and economic changes. With the rapid shifting in the patterns of home life, with practises and attitudes no longer accepted or seeming to work—can children stand the stress and strain? This common interest—the welfare of children—can bring the home and the teacher closer together. It will be the teacher's responsibility to bring this about.

Everywhere about us we are aware of the insecurity of institutions, ideals, old standards. Unfortunately there are many places in this country where insecurity is felt by the teacher as well as by the rest of the wage-earners, but she puts aside all

feeling of self and helps the children get their only feeling of security from her. The school is just the same happy place even if the rest of the world is in a sorry mess. The *teacher* is the one who *is the same*.

From our guiding lights we turn to the traffic lights of red, yellow, and green. These lights prevent our accidents, demanding that we stop, or change, or go. Dr. Reynolds of the Horace Mann School provided the red stop light, the light that makes us pause and consider, when he called attention to the 28,000,000 children and the schools set up to prepare them for life. Dr. Reynolds believes the modern school for the modern child should develop within him four simple powers: to know things; to do things; to think things; to feel things.

A modern school should determine as scientifically as possible, what, out of the great mass of human learning, it is worthwhile for a boy or girl to know.

Yes, the modern school should teach children to know the truth. Let them know the truth about our politics, our economic system, our social injustice, our wars. Let them know what liberty is, but let them also know where it does not exist: let them get the American concept of equality but let them know where in America equality is but a name.

It is not enough to know the problems of life: they won't be solved unless somebody *does* something about them. A good school is one in which the children learn to do things. You want the school to build character into your boy. It won't do it by preaching to him—nor can character be built by beating. A good school and incidentally a good home is one which constantly sets up situations in which *doing* the right thing is desirable to the child. In that way, and that way only can character be developed.

And next, the modern school should teach a child to think—not do his thinking for him. I believe that the school owes it to me to help me teach my child how to think straight—in the face of objective evidence. An eminent lawyer once told me that a good citizen is one who has the qualities of an honest jurymen; that is, a good citizen like an honest jurymen is one who, when faced with a civic decision, weighs all the evidence on this side of the case then on the other and by means of straight thinking arrives at an honest conclusion.

And finally a good school should develop within children the power to feel things. What we know does not make us what we are. What we think does not necessarily distinguish us as individuals. Even what we do is not an index of our real selves, as modern psychology will substantiate, but, what we feel, and no one in the world knows what that is except ourselves—what we feel, that we are. Knowing, doing, thinking are after all more or less artificial; feeling is reality. Nothing great was ever thought or done which was not first greatly *felt*.

The yellow traffic light announces "Prepare to change." Dr. Hall who spoke of "The Teacher as an Individual" gave us our signal for "prepare to change."

We have been attacked from all sides as never before. We know that it is not a bad thing for our schools to be criticized if the sympathy behind the criticism makes the attack stimulating rather than discouraging. We acknowledge with all humility that probably we would have profited by more criticism in the past.

It is hard to accept the fact that along with money and a sense of security, we have also lost a certain professional prestige or standing in public esteem. But it has made us think—and that is something for which to be thankful. I believe we have challenged our own work as never before and that we have reached certain conclusions which will motivate us next year.

What the individual is in all his human relationships determines his value to the community.

We who teach all the children of all the people must not develop a professional clannishness which keeps us apart from community life.

There seems to be a peculiar engrossment in teaching, which tends to crowd out normal interests necessary to balanced living. There also seems to be a tendency to lose perspective and thus to magnify details and to become limited to shop talk in our contacts with our friends and neighbors. The inevitable attrition of the school-room may wear thin our saving sense of humor, and we may take ourselves too seriously.

Conservation of her individuality is as much the problem of the teacher as is professional growth. It is of vital importance that she secure sufficient freedom in thought and action for development of her individuality. This only will give sincerity and color to her vocation.

The answer to the question "Can one be a teacher and at the same time an individual?" is *Yes*. The proof lies in the successful personal lives of many teachers. But I am convinced that it is never accidental. It is the result of a definite plan and a controlling purpose.

In the informal atmosphere of a modern classroom, where pupils participate freely in all activities, the teacher can be herself—natural, direct, genuine, spontaneous. Indeed, in this way only can she find and give happiness and help in her association with responsive children. Children recognize sincerity. It is their touchstone and the teacher's open sesame.

A teacher must recognize her responsibilities as a citizen and inform herself upon public issues of importance. We say that, but do we avail ourselves of these opportunities, not obligations? Are our convictions formed by the brilliant woman whose current events class we attend, or do we also listen to the man in the garage, the woman who runs the club or restaurant where we eat, adviser at the bank, or the saleswoman in the shop we patronize? Do we know and respect and digest the opinions of a large number of people, or do we fall back on the *Reader's Digest*?

Have we discovered any compelling interest in the world of nature which pulls us out of doors in spite of ourselves and provides the safest possible escape mechanism?

Has any art or craft recently given our unskilled hands and brain a new source of satisfaction, not in the product but in the process?

Dare we live out our lives without another degree (even under salary pressure) when we need long periods of rest and relaxation or time for other pursuits which, alas, bring no credits, nothing but inner satisfaction.

It takes a real person to be real; but children will accept no spurious leadership. It is a great adventure to live a life filled to the brim with human experiences. Such a life is a challenge to every power we possess. It is comparatively easy to learn how to teach; but it takes a lifetime of schooling to learn how to live with understanding, tolerance, and sympathy. Professional training may give us pride in mental achievement. Living with our fellows gives us humility. We rejoice in every bit of skill which makes us more helpful to children; but we must take our direction anew each day. "Seek ye the Kingdom of God and His righteousness and all these things shall be added unto you."

It is usually easier to obey the green light that says "Go" than it is to heed the red and yellow lights.

Dr. Threlkeld speaking on "Educating the Whole Child" urges us to attempt new things, to attempt new responsibilities, to go forward. He asks these questions: "Do we have the kind of society that makes it possible for the whole personality constructively to express itself? Is our society failing

to provide the proper conditions for the constructive expression of the whole child?"

How many of us feel that we are doing the thing in life which we would rather do as compared to all other vocations available? No matter how much we talk about educating the whole child, the child, when he grows up, will be denied a certain very important component of complete living if he is not privileged to follow a vocational pursuit which he can follow zestfully. There must be a place for everyone, a job, if you please, in which he can not only make a living but, more important still, one in which he can express himself constructively.

It is possible for each person to have a function to perform in life which he can identify with the most noble purpose which it is possible for him to conceive. But if we are to have a social situation appropriate to the individual who has been educated in accordance with the concept of the whole, integrated personality that the newer education seeks to develop, we must, as adults, bring about the social changes necessary to produce a condition in which the individual may, by reasonable effort, procure security thruout his lifetime and express himself in his leisure time, and at all times for that matter, in terms of an ever-growing, ever-enriching life.

There is a vast social frontier here. We shall have to become social explorers and engineers if we are to conquer it.

It is in one of those periods calling for rapid adjustment of the social order that we live at the present moment. We should not be afraid of the challenge. We should look upon it as the greatest of all possible challenges to our leadership in social engineering. Many significant adjustments apparently are now under way. How they will work will depend upon the extent to which the people themselves give intelligent consideration to them.

We school teachers have been in the habit of thinking that our sole duty with reference to social problems lies in teaching the young certain concepts of living. But let us bear in mind that this is not enough. We must give attention to the social changes that must be made if life at large is to synchronize with the ideal we have in mind for the life of the individual.

We must be active in leading the way in social reconstruction.

The third group of convention lights I shall compare to the intimate soft glow of candlelight and firelight—not too obvious. They are the quiet lights that bring beauty of thought and feeling—that bring peace to the inner man and lasting strength for daily living. There were myriads of these soft happy lights:

The lovely music that preceded many of the programs
The beautiful pictures in color of the Colorado wild
flowers with which an evening program opened
A friendly tea at the Museum of Art
The lecture on Poetry and the Child
The drive of sixty-five miles thru the mountain parks
Even-tide at Red Rocks
The thoughtful hospitality of our Denver hostesses
The music and dancing of Indians
Contacts with 706 kindergarten and primary teachers
registered at the convention.

Speeches may soon be forgotten; but the pleasures of friendship, the memories of mountainsides of blue larkspur, the confidence imparted by the everlasting hills—these remain to glow and shine within us always.

MUCH ADO ABOUT REPORT CARDS

MARJORIE HARDY, PRINCIPAL, FRIENDS SCHOOL, GERMANTOWN, PA.

Much ado about report cards in our kindergarten-primary school was a wholesome agitation which became a point of departure for organizing a parents' group for the purpose of explaining present practises in school, and the subsequent doing away with report cards.

The fact that report cards in 1930-31 were being sent home twice a year instead of four times a year concerned some of the parents who were in the habit of thinking of their children's progress in terms of academic standing rather than developing character, personality, and real learning.

As a result of the parents' meetings there was a more active interest in the school by parents who always had been interested and who had stood behind the school and its endeavors but knew not how they might best help the school. Discussions in grade groups of the purposes and outcomes of present school practises led to the question of an intelligent way to give a report of the pupil's progress in school. This led to the formulation of a report card by the teachers of a kind that would clinch the points discussed in meetings and that would satisfy the parents. Incidentally, later, when it was sent home it brought to parents who did not attend meetings these purposes and outcomes in a way that assured the school they would be pondered over, for there was a column on the report card into which the parents were to put their checks on many of the same items checked by the teachers.

However, before this report card was put in its final form for use in 1931-32 a mimeographed copy of it was given to the parents asking them for criticisms and suggestions. More helpful suggestions were received from parents after the cards had been checked, signed, and returned to school near the end of the second semester than were given before.

The report card just described served a very definite purpose at this time. The parents of each child were reached in a way that assured the school of some reaction on the part of parents. The chief criticism of the card was that even tho detailed, it gave neither a picture of the child nor the understanding of the school which the school wished to give. Consequently the next step in 1932-33 was to send no report cards home, but substitute for them the individual conferences with parents, one near the end of the first semester, and one near the end of the second semester.

To go from this rather detailed report card, which was sent home twice a year, to no report card may seem an abrupt change. It was, but the school felt that the parents were ready for it. It was felt that thru the means of having individual conferences with parents would come: (1) a better understanding of the school curriculum; (2) a better understanding of the child for the teacher as well as for the parent; (3) a better understanding of the problem the school has in giving a report of pupil progress in a satisfactory way; (4) a stronger bond formed between home and school; and (5) a means of educating the public to the worth of school practises.

In preparation for the conferences the teacher's part was to be able to tell how the child had progressed during the year, using a goal sheet prepared by the school for each grade level as a basis for judging (each teacher had 25 or more children); and to have ready to show to parents samples of the child's written work of various kinds.

The schedules for conferences were taken care of in the kindergarten-primary office and with the teachers' approval were mailed to the parents on form sheets prepared for the purpose. Parents with more than one child were, for their convenience, scheduled for more than one conference on the same day. Accompanying each notice of conference was a mimeographed sheet stating the school's philosophy. The principal and the teachers planned a procedure to use in giving the reports at the conferences which would conserve the time of both parents and teacher. Suggestions were given the teacher for meeting individual differences in parents. The school counselor, who gave the children standardized tests, prepared for the teacher individual graphs for each child showing his progress and that of the group, and in the cases of children who fell below the median a line showing what the child had done sometime previous with the same kind of test.

At the time of conference the teacher (1) gave the parents an unchecked goal sheet for them to use as the teacher discussed the child in the light of that sheet (the parents could take home the goal sheet); (2) showed the graph sheet after first stating its purpose and the use made of it; and (3) asked parents any questions about the child she wished and gave parents an opportunity to ask questions, to make comments, and to give suggestions. At the last conference the parents were given a written statement to keep which summed up the child's characteristics. The kindergarten-primary principal was present at each conference which concerned a child who in any way was having great difficulty in social behavior or in school work.

The teachers had one more thing to do, something upon which much importance was placed by the school, and that was a brief record of the conference written by the teacher in an examination book provided for the purpose—one book each for the parents of each child and to be used thruout the primary grades for recording conferences. Such points as the following were recorded: whether or not both parents attended the conference; the reaction of parents to this conference method of giving reports; a list of questions asked by parents and comments and suggestions given; and significant facts gleaned by the teacher from the parents about the child.

It must be stated that 100 percent of the teachers were for this method of reporting pupil's progress. The light thrown on the child thru parent contacts as well as light thrown on the parents helped the teachers to go about their work of dealing with personalities more intelligently.

Let us see what was revealed by some of the teachers' records of conferences and thru observation of parents.

I. Better understanding of the child by teacher and parent

1. One mother said she liked this way of getting reports. She was surprised to have the teacher say one nice thing about her child.
2. Several parents told spontaneously of what parent the child was the favorite.
3. Interference and bullying of older brothers and sisters were reported.
4. A mother said she could see now that returning to school late in the fall did handicap a child.
5. The sudden nervousness in school of a child was understood when the mother reported that the child had been locked for half an hour in the rumble seat of a car, and a few days later had the experience of being at the circus while a hurricane was raging which infuriated the animals and crashed tent poles. The child told his mother that if he had his life to live over he would not have so many awful things happen to him!
6. The teachers could sense many things in parent-child relationship from the conferences.

The conferences gave opportunities for teachers to help parents set up goals for home where eighteen of the twenty-four hours are spent. The parents were led to see that home and school programs should not interfere with each other.

Parents who had a great deal they wished to talk over with the teacher were urged to come at another time and continue the discussion.

II. Better understanding of the school

1. Parents were glad to know more specifically than a card could tell just how the habits of behavior were expected to vary at the different age levels.
2. Several mothers remarked that they could see that the school was trying to do what the home was trying to do.
3. The following questions asked by a parent indicate that he considered things other than academic standing of importance.
 - a. Is Mary a good sport?
 - b. Is her disposition aggressive?
 - c. Has she the kind of mind that retains what she learns?
 - d. Is she over-competitive?
4. The goal sheets eliminated any question or doubts on the part of parents as to the place of the three R's in the curriculum. The graphs showed that objective evidence as well as subjective evidence was used in determining progress in the tool subjects.
5. Several parents expressed relief in knowing what their part was in the child's learning.
6. A father (a lawyer) expressed great surprise and interest when shown how each child's errors and difficulties in reading were diagnosed.
7. As a direct result of the conferences two children who had been withdrawn from school and entered in other school (the parents sensing no difference in schools), were reentered in our school.

III. Better understanding of the problem which the school has of reporting pupil progress

1. Ninety-eight percent of parents liked this way of reporting.
2. Thirty-five fathers came to the conferences with the mothers.
3. Parents saw the place of the standardized test. They saw that while the graph showed the child's progress based on objective evidence it was the result of one test only and was a test of achievement rather than of ability.

IV. Stronger bond between school and home

1. A greater number of parents visited school.
2. There was a better attendance and more activity at group grade meetings.
3. There was a better attendance, especially of fathers at the evening meetings.
4. Fewer complaints have come to the school started from a person's misunderstanding of school practise. Good constructive suggestions based on an intelligent understanding of school practises have been given by parents.

V. Educating the public

1. An elderly man with no children in the school greeted the principal outside of school, with, "I think it fine the way the school knows each child and what he needs. Wonderful!" (Of course the school has studied individual needs for years but the public didn't realize it.)
2. More children from new families were entered for next year than was expected there would be in this time of depression.

It has been pointed out by educators how the "school's failure to make clear what the school is doing has led to disastrous retrenchments which are now being forced on the school systems during the present crisis." It has been suggested that superintendents and teachers are not in a position to enlighten the public but that the principals are. My belief is that it is up to the teachers to do it. They can do it thru better teaching, the results of which speak for themselves, and they can do it thru individual conferences with parents for these reasons:

1. No one understands better than the teacher the children in her care.
2. No one understands the school curriculum as it is put into practise better than the teacher.
3. The intimate contact with the parent over the concern of his child, his most precious possession, is far-reaching and compelling, and it is at this time that it is best to make clear what the school is doing.

My plea is for more scheduled, intelligently directed conferences with parents in which attention is focused on the child and school and home as a means of making home and school places for developing a race of people who will learn a "way of living" which demands unselfishness, tolerance, dependableness, industriousness, good habits of work and an emotional responsiveness to rich emotional stimuli, with an appreciation of the beautiful in music, in representative arts, in nature, in literature, in speech, coupled with moral obligation to realize it; and educating the public to their responsibility in making possible home and school conditions for this development—and by so doing at this time they help to meet the present crisis in the schools. Think what it would mean to the education of children if the parents of each kindergarten-primary school child met the teacher of his child in an intelligently directed conference.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

The officers for the Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education elected at Atlantic City in 1932 were unable to serve. For that reason the Association requested Miss Julia Wade Abbot to sponsor a program for the Chicago meeting. This program followed a luncheon given by the Chicago Public School Kindergarten Primary Association.

Mr. William J. Bogan, Superintendent of Chicago Public Schools, gave a brief but inspiring talk before presenting Miss Abbot, who spoke about the Denver meeting of the Association of Childhood Education. Miss Abbot presented Dr. Mary Dabney Davis of the Office of Education, who gave a brief outline of the work in her Department. Miss Mary Leeper, Secretary of the Association of Childhood Education, gave the high spots of the Denver meeting.

"Much Ado about Report Cards" was the subject of a talk by Miss Marjorie Hardy, principal, Primary School, Philadelphia, Pa.

This closed the luncheon program. A business session followed.

Mrs. Jones, President of the State Kindergarten Association of California, was elected chairman of this session. This action was necessary as the Department was without officers.

The report of the Nominating Committee which had been authorized by the Association was accepted and the following officers were unanimously elected: president, Mrs. Livia Youngquist Peterson; vicepresident, Miss Norma Smith; secretary, Miss Edith Alden Rosa.

Motions

Miss Anna Jenkins of Los Angeles, California: That the President of the Department appoint a committee to determine the best means of cooperation between this Department and the Association of Childhood Education. Seconded and carried.

Miss Helen Baldwin of California: That the incoming officers of the Department be requested to ask for representation on the Joint Commission on Emergency in Education, and that state representatives be notified of regional meetings, to the end that the Department may have representation at such meetings. Seconded and carried.

Motion from the floor: That a Nominating Committee of five be appointed—two from the floor, and three by the President of the Department—to prepare a slate to be acted upon in 1934. Seconded and carried.

The names of Miss Helen Baldwin of Oakland, California, and Miss Ethel Roseland of Los Angeles, California, were presented from the floor; the other three are to be appointed by the President of the Department.

Meeting adjourned.

Department of Lip Reading

THE DEPARTMENT OF LIP READING was established at the Philadelphia meeting of the National Education Association, in July 1926, following the required successive meetings of the group, and after a petition had been presented to the Association.

The officers for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Coralie N. Kenfield, Teacher of Lip Reading, San Francisco Public Schools, 617 Shreve Building, San Francisco, Calif.; *Vicepresident*, Estelle E. Samuelson, Supervisor, Education and Employment Work, New York League for the Hard of Hearing, Inc., 480 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Jane Cronholm, 1213 Seventh Avenue, Rock Island, Ill.

Meetings are held once each year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1926:1067-1100	1928:435-449	1930:391-400	1932:415-422
1927:473-486	1929:449-462	1931:483-494	

SPECIAL EDUCATION AND THE HARD OF HEARING

FRANK G. BRUNER, DIRECTOR OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS, DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION, CHICAGO, ILL.

Modern society is thoroly convinced of the value of education in spite of the carpings of certain newspapers. There is a conviction too, that every child has a right to the kind of education that will best fit him to take his place in the world. Regardless of the character of his handicap, he is entitled to educational training up to the full measure of his ability to learn.

Assuming, then, that a hearing defect constitutes a serious handicap to a child in his school work, the problem of the hard of hearing obviously falls within the province of special education. Some cities take care of the hard of hearing in classes with the deaf. Others have special schools or classes for them, while still others keep these children in the regular classes, and provide supplementary instruction in lip reading two or three class periods a week by a specially trained teacher who travels from one school to another for this purpose.

That the hard-of-hearing child should not be placed in a class with the deaf seems reasonably certain. They already have their speech and language background and, if it seems advisable, may be taught by means of voice amplifying devices. Their rate of progress should be much more rapid than that of deaf children. Then, too, in classes with the deaf, hard-of-hearing children inevitably take on the mannerisms and habits peculiar to this group.

Whether a hard-of-hearing child can carry on his school work in classes with children of normal hearing, provided he is given additional instruction in lip reading, will depend upon his intelligence and on his hearing loss. No child should be removed from normal contacts except when it becomes absolutely necessary. Our experience in Chicago has been that most children with very serious hearing defects require an educational regimen which differs radically from that of the regular grades. They do satisfactory school work only when placed in special classes where the membership is small and where the instruction is individual. With a hearing loss of 20 to 30 percent their speech often becomes defective or unnatural, and they require more attention than can be given in two or three lessons a week by a peripatetic lip-reading teacher. Where the hearing loss is less than 20 percent, several lip-reading lessons a week may be very valuable against the day when the hearing becomes more defective, or lost entirely.

The first step in a program for hard-of-hearing children is the discovery of those who require special attention. Determining the amount of hearing loss, its cause, and its probable development are clearly matters for otologists. But there are not a sufficient number of otologists in the country to examine adequately the ears of all children of school age. The first selection must therefore be made by some other agency. Experience has demonstrated that classroom teachers who have not been carefully trained to test hearing, do it very unsatisfactorily. Nor are the examinations made by school medical inspectors on the whole any more satisfactory. Tests with the 4-A Graybar

Audiometer in the hands of a nurse or a teacher carefully trained in its use, bring good results when the findings are checked by competent otologists. This is the method we are trying to follow in Chicago.

Our next problem is to determine just how many children suffering with more than 12 percent hearing loss in one or both ears should have lip-reading instruction. Clearly not all, nor indeed any considerable proportion of them. Many will be found to have nose, throat, and middle ear congestions which will respond to medical and surgical treatment. To my mind this is the most important result of a testing program, as these complications, if neglected, might lead to serious hearing losses, if not to deafness itself.

I am not altogether familiar with the results obtained where children enrolled in regular hearing classes, are given lip-reading instruction by peripatetic teachers. If such a plan were followed consistently 8000 hard-of-hearing children would require this instruction in the city of Chicago, whereas at the present time we are reaching less than 300. We were about ready to launch a more extensive lip-reading program when the depression hit us.

Unquestionably the greatest need presented by the hard-of-hearing school child, and the one which is most inadequately met, is his preparation for employment. These children should have vocational guidance and after they have gone to work, their careers should be carefully followed and directed. I know of no place where this type of program is being carried out in a satisfactory manner. It is however, the cornerstone to success in the education of the hard of hearing.

Loss of hearing is not a handicap which need affect an individual's economic independence, his social usefulness, his happiness, or his leadership in the community. It is our province as educators, and a challenge in particular to those of us engaged in special education, to so train the hard of hearing in school that they may go out into the world wholly self-respecting and self-sustaining members of society.

A CENTURY OF PROGRESS IN LIP READING

MRS. HARRIET ANDREWS MONTAGUE, ASSISTANT EDITOR, *Volta Review*,
VOLTA BUREAU, WASHINGTON, D. C.

There has not been a century of progress in lip reading. The actual progress in teaching lip reading to adults covers a period of forty years. Neither adults nor children received instruction in this art in the United States prior to 1860. This was partly due to Thomas Gallaudet's introduction of the manual system of teaching the deaf. The first oral schools for deaf children were opened in 1867 and the following years. Adults applied to these schools for lip-reading lessons, but the teachers had not developed a system adapted to the hard of hearing, and the instruction was slow and difficult.

Alexander Graham Bell did much to further the cause of lip reading. He called the first lip-reading conference in Chautauqua in 1894. This marked

the beginning of the modern period of lip reading. The forty years since that date may be divided into decades which show roughly the progress made. From 1894 to 1904, the first private schools of lip reading for adults were opened. Edward B. Nitchie of New York and Martha E. Bruhn of Boston began to develop their methods. From 1904 to 1914, private schools increased rapidly in number, as graduates of the Bruhn and Nitchie schools opened classes in the larger cities thruout the country. From 1914 to 1924, lip reading was introduced into the public schools. Evening classes for adults were established, and lip reading was taught to hard-of-hearing children in the grammar grades. The period from 1924 to 1933 has seen a great expansion in public interest, and lip reading has attained a definite place in public systems of education.

The modern tendency is toward making lip reading entirely a public-school activity. This means that the standards for training teachers will be higher and more exacting. There may also be developed tests of lip-reading ability, which are now lacking.

Among modern departures are the Jena Method, taught in Michigan State Normal College; the use of motion pictures in lip-reading instruction, being experimented with at Ohio State University; the vibration method being taught in schools for the deaf, which develops phenomenal lip-reading ability; and the psychological experiments being carried on at Clarke School.

THE LEARNING AND TEACHING OF SPEECH READING

BESSIE L. WHITAKER, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION, STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, YPSILANTI, MICH.

When visible effects of the movements of the organs of speech are understood in terms of meanings as audible effects are understood, there is speech reading, that is, there is what might be termed speech seeing. Normally there is what might be termed speech hearing. Speech reading, in the sense used in this discussion, becomes necessary when there is a cut-off in the auditory pathway to the brain because of the failure of the conducting mechanism (the ear), which normally receives the air vibrations that are set in motion as one person speaks to another. The object of this discussion is the consideration of the way in which speech-reading ability is acquired.

The direct approach to the subject is chosen. We seek to point out a conception of the process of learning speech reading that is in line with physiological psychology. We consider it as what has been termed in the speech laboratory the genetic development of the interpretative process of speech.

In the nature of speech lie the problems of our interpretation of speech. As one talks the speaking is seen in its total effects of natural phrase interplay. Speech is not simply a phonetic event. The difficulties of interpretation on a phonetic basis, on the assumption that movement effects in talking correspond definitely to individual sounds, are well known. Hence the futility of training in the phonetics of facial alphabets.

But the complete pattern of actual speech, including the rhythm of speech, must be aroused by means of the seemingly inadequate slight tho constantly occurring visual stimuli. These must be made adequate—and here is the point of the discussion—thru the arousal of the complete kinesthetic or muscular-sensation pattern of actual speech in one's own speaking processes. This is brought about by a full association process, a fusion of the full pattern of speech with the slight visual appearance. When these visual appearances, acting as stimuli, arouse the complete motor pattern and this is established in habit, the speech-reading ability is functioning.

Sensations reach the different areas of the brain and fuse. To effect this there must be experience registered in the brain thru one pathway—the muscular-sensation pathway—coincidentally with the experience thru another pathway—the open pathway of vision of movement. The slight visual stimuli then become the means of the speech interpretation.

The foundation for the arousal of the muscular sensations in speaking is in the organic feelings. The shifting of dominance from the old auditory pathway to vision of movement and kinesthesia is in the genetic order of the development of sensory paths, the order of the process of original (infant) orientation and speech development: (1) organic feeling, (2) kinesthesia and touch and pressure, (3) hearing, (4) and (5) vision of movement, vision of letters.

So much of the conditions for speech reading, just indicated, is in the mechanism of the association process, involving the auditory, the visual, and the motor-speech areas of the brain. Of course there is operative at the same time the correlated functioning of the brain at higher levels and centers for the meaning patterns, as in all perceiving.

But vision of movement for speech interpretation or speech reading is made effective thru the rearousal of the muscular-sensation or kinesthetic pathway. This emphasis of kinesthesia is the central idea of our work in the Michigan State Normal college at Ypsilanti.

The practical significance of speech reading is in the significance of speech as a means of human intercourse. Without intercourse one is cut off from life.

FINDING THE HARD-OF-HEARING CHILD

HAZEL WALKER, AUDIOMETER EXAMINER, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

Deafness in children, as in adults tends to conceal itself, tho not for the same reason. Children who do not hear perfectly are not always aware of the fact. I have found many children who have never had an earache or any trouble with their ears who have imperfect hearing. Children who are backward in school work are often retarded because of defective hearing, while this condition may not even be suspected by the instructor or the child himself.

Defects in school children's hearing vary from slight defects that are scarcely noticeable, to deafness so severe that segregation of such children in separate smaller classes is necessary. The first objective in our hearing tests

should be to detect the children who are severely handicapped, and segregate them in smaller classes where they can be given lip reading. The second objective is to find the group of children with moderate defects who do not require segregation, but can overcome the handicap with treatment, and a recognition of the situation by the child and the teacher. Many of these children should be given a foundation of lip reading for future insurance altho many of them will have the defect cleared up permanently.

The hearing tests which I have been carrying on in the Chicago Schools have been done with the 4-A Audiometer and the 2-A Audiometer. The 4-A Audiometer, for those who are not familiar with it, is a machine for survey work. It is a machine similar to a victrola. Ear phones are attached. Eight to forty children may be tested at one time, or an individual test may be given to a child too small to write numbers. The children with ear phones on one ear listen to numbers from a record, writing what they hear on a sheet of paper. The numbers come thru in weaker and weaker tones as tho the person speaking were walking away from them. The test shows in black and white where the child stops hearing. It shows quickly the child with normal hearing. If a child hears no numbers on this record his hearing loss is over 30 percent. It is the showing in black and white that has the effect on the child, the parent and the teacher. These tests must be made very carefully however. The result of the first test should not be taken as final. Concentration and attention have much to do with hearing. Nervousness and fear affect concentration and attention. The child comes for a second chance interested in doing his best. Consequently the results of a second test are more accurate.

Whisper tests are given to children in the kindergarten, first and second grades, and those children who fail to hear at fifteen or twenty feet are given an individual audiometer test, the examiner writing the numbers as the child tells her what he hears. These children are not hard to test if a game is made of it.

The follow-up work is very important in this work. Due to present financial conditions in Chicago we have had to leave it to the principals and the teachers to follow up the cases found in their schools. I believe I can safely say this work has been done rather well under the circumstances.

The cooperation of the clinics and the otologists of the city has been splendid. Hundreds of tonsils and adenoids have been removed due to these tests, and many, many cases have been treated without charge. Many of the parents follow me up after the child has had treatment for a retest, and it is very gratifying to realize the improvement brought about by a few treatments by a doctor who understands the condition.

Proper seating in the classroom is very necessary for these children. I do not advocate the front seat, but a seat second or third back in the middle of the room, for these children have to hear what is said in the back of the room as well as what is said in the front of the room. They should be allowed to move around the room when they need a more advantageous seat. The knowledge of the teacher of the child's defect helps as she often talks more directly to him.

I have been talking of the cases which can be helped and adjusted in the group, and they are numerous, but there is the group which should for their own good be segregated. I do not believe, however, in segregating a child until it has been shown that there is nothing that can be done to help the condition. If the prognosis is "nerve involvement progressive deafness," then the sooner the child can be given lip reading the better. These are the children who are put in our hard-of-hearing department. A small percentage of children have been sent to these departments this year. There is often parental objection to this segregation.

At the Bell School one of the larger centers for the deaf and hard of hearing, Miss Mattocks has tried out the experiment of letting these children be enrolled in the regular classes but has released them for lip reading certain periods of the day. This has worked out very nicely and to date these children have been able to hold their own. There are 75 or 100 children with marked hearing defects carrying on in their grade work in the regular schools, in spite of this handicap. They are the natural lip-readers. They should have some formal work in lip reading and it is my hope that next year we will be able to handle this for them. However before leaving the schools where I have found these children I have called them to me and given them a talk on the necessity and possibility of lip reading.

The 2-A Audiometer for those who do not understand this machine, is a different test, used for those children who show more than a 30 percent loss of hearing. It is an individual test and shows to the examiner and to the otologist whether high or low tones are gone, apparently making it easier for the doctor to ascertain more readily where the trouble lies. In very deaf children remnants of hearing may often be detected by the 2-A Audiometer.

I am only scratching the surface of this work in Chicago. I have a plan for next year I am hoping to be able to carry out. The financial situation in all school systems at the present makes it impossible to be allowed larger appropriations for the work. With the cooperation of the otologists interested in this work, I am hoping to be able to have them go into the schools and teach the teachers to give whisper tests to all children. This will eliminate the defective cases quickly and give me more time to check up and follow up the defective cases with the Audiometers. To date it is only a hope, another year will prove whether it can be done successfully.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

The seventh annual meeting of the Department of Lip Reading of the National Education Association was called to order on July 4, 1933 at Hotel Stevens, Chicago, Coralie N. Kenfield, president, presiding. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved. A letter of greeting from Caroline F. Kimball, first president of the Department, was read. The reports of the secretary-treasurer were read and approved. As no official reports from committee chairmen had been received, the secretary's reports on the publicity committee, the program committee, and the revision of the constitution committee were read and approved.

In reviewing the work of the past year the president said that the Department was interested in the welfare of three groups, namely, the hard-of-hearing child, the hard-of-hearing adult, and the teacher of the hard of hearing. She spoke of the mimeographed publication *Method and Technique* as being one way of bringing teachers into closer touch with each other thru the exchange of new ideas in presenting material. With reference to the memorandum for the Department of Lip Reading as compiled by the Department of Research, N. E. A., and entitled *The Education of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing* she felt that teachers should from time to time send in statistics regarding registration figures, or any data throwing light on the work for the hard of hearing in any given district in the United States. She said that the memorandum merely offered a hint as to what teachers might accomplish thru their membership in the Department of Lip Reading of the National Education Association. The president urged teachers to help local libraries, and especially teachers' libraries of the public schools, to secure lip-reading texts, and books and pamphlets dealing with deafness. She cited the fact that she herself contributed her copies of the *Volta Review* and of the *Auditory Outlook* to the Teachers' Library in San Francisco.

A letter from Elise H. Martens, president of the Department of Special Education was read. In this letter the Department of Special Education cordially invited the Department of Lip Reading to associate with and to become a part of the Department of Special Education. "It is understood that such action is not to prevent those whose major interest is the education of the deaf and hard of hearing from organizing themselves into a section of the Department of Special Education should this be the desire of a sufficient number." Action was left to the incoming administration.

The constitution in its revised form was read and voted on, article by article, and then adopted as a whole.

Before calling for nominations for officers the president stated that altho there was no provision in the bylaws, it was an unwritten law in the Department that no officer should serve more than two years in succession. She said that the present secretary had devoted a great deal of time and effort in carrying out the duties of the office during the past two years, and had rendered most efficient service but that she was not a candidate for re-election. The following officers were elected for 1933-34: Coralie N. Kenfield, San Francisco, president; Estelle E. Samuelson, New York, vicepresident, and Jane Cronholm, Rock Island, Ill., secretary-treasurer.

The president then appointed Helen Sriver a committee of one to confer with the officers of the Department of Special Education to devise ways and means whereby the Department of Lip Reading might associate with and become a part of the Department of Special Education and yet not lose its own identity. A vote of thanks was given to the Sonotone Corporation for wiring the hall. The secretary was asked to write the usual notes of thanks, and to send to each member a copy of the constitution as adopted. It was reported that 90 people had been in attendance at the program and that the fifty ear phones furnished by the Sonotone Corporation had all been in use. Registrations at the exhibit booth on the lower floor of the hotel exceeded 100.

Meeting adjourned.

Department of Rural Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION grew out of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education which was authorized by the Board of Directors in 1907. See *Proceedings*, 1907:44-45. At the Chicago meeting in 1919, the Department was reorganized with three organized rural groups then existing—the National Association of State Supervisors and Inspectors of Rural Schools, the County Superintendents' section of the National Education Association, and the National Association of Persons Engaged in the Preparation of Rural Teachers—under the name of the Department of Rural Education. See *Proceedings*, 1920:279.

The officers of the Department of Rural Education for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa; *Vicepresident*, R. E. Jaggers, Director of Teacher Training, State Department of Education, Frankfort, Ky.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Chief, Division of Special Problems, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: M. S. Pittman, Director of Rural Education, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich. (Term expires 1934); Helen Hay Heyl, Assistant in Rural Education, State Education Department, Albany, N. Y. (Term expires 1935); O. H. Plenzke, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Madison, Wis. (Term expires 1936); Fannie W. Dunn, Professor of Rural Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. (Term expires 1937); Sue Powers, Superintendent of Shelby County Schools, Memphis, Tenn. (Term expires 1938).

The Department meets twice each year, in February and in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1907: 44- 45	1914: 877- 907	1921: 523- 616	1928: 453- 543
1908:1187-1215	1915:1131-1159	1922:1099-1222	1929- 463- 541
1909: 953- 992	1916: 613- 636	1923: 745- 841	1930: 401- 499
1910:1081-1114	1917: 599- 613	1924: 651- 714	1931: 495- 540
1911:1117-1161	1918: 271- 293	1925: 522- 576	1932: 423- 453
1912:1365-1413	1919: 281- 288	1926: 537- 600	
1913: 801- 818	1920: 271- 303	1927: 497- 559	

A PROGRAM TO MEET THE SITUATION

O. H. PLENZKE, ASSISTANT STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC
INSTRUCTION, MADISON, WIS.

What the public needs is understandable information about education. The teaching profession as a whole has been too smug in its reliance upon universal desire for good schools. That general desire is now being scuttled by economic fear, distortion of facts on school costs, and continual pressure to reduce property taxes upon which, unfortunately, schools still have to depend for support.

The foes of education have easy entree to the best means of disseminating propaganda to drive the harassed citizen to desperation in seeking relief without a clear conception that the hard-won gains of years may be destroyed.

Each state should so organize its forces that the people may be given accurate information about school costs and services. An apologetic defense must give way to aggressive sponsorship of education. Under-cover and lateral attacks must be met with a vigorous offense which not only justifies education in good times but makes it all the more imperative to maintain standards during "off" periods. The only business that has had a heavier load to carry since 1929 is education.

The best agency to correlate a program of fact-projection is the state education association. Under its leadership the state department, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, League of Women Voters, American Legion, and other groups may be made an effective aggregate in behalf of education.

THE EFFECT OF THE PRESENT ECONOMIC SITUATION ON RURAL SCHOOLS

WILLIAM A. BOERGER, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
ST. CLOUD, MINN.

While in some sections conditions are still encouraging, the area in which non-payment of taxes threatens to impair rural-school activities greatly exceeds that of the former kind. This situation grows out of the general depression and will not yield to efforts based exclusively upon educational plans. The condition is nationwide, but the remedy must be purely local and must include the efforts of financiers, manufacturers, and legislators. Cause and effect are too widely separated, in actual physical distance as well as in their economic interrelation, to enable any single group to devise and put in operation a general emergency plan aiming at a lasting solution.

Actual sacrifice on the part of all concerned will play a large part in local alleviation, and a wise program of future activities will act as a safeguard against the return of the malady. Rural sections must be made to appreciate the cultural value of a school-acquired education, as distinguished from its money-getting ability, and the dollar standard of measuring results will have

to be translated into terms of service, tho that service be rendered in the humblest of farm labors which the school must help to raise to an equal dignity with other occupations and professions.

Two great factors will have to cooperate toward bringing about these results. On the one hand rural people must be filled and inspired with a wholehearted confidence. This can only come thru a sincere and honest discharge of duty on the part of those engaged in the work, without any efforts toward catering to unrelated commercial interests. On the other hand our rural teachers will have to abandon their present readiness to apologize for the line of work in which they are engaged, and to substitute therefor a great, ennobling pride!

CURRICULUM CHARACTERISTICS AND TRENDS IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

EMORY N. FERRISS, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, CORNELL UNIVERSITY,
ITHACA, N. Y.

The problem of providing a curriculum-offering meeting modern demands and sufficiently extensive and varied to suit the abilities, interests, and purposes of rural youth has several angles. All studies of the subjects offered by the rural high school have forced one to the conclusion that its program is predominantly academic in character and that the central core is most frequently composed of the more traditional subjects. Altho the investigation of requirements for graduation indicates some gain in the direction of flexibility the traditional idea of discipline seems even yet to hold much influence. The data on trends or changes, on the other hand, seem to show rather clearly that subjects are being introduced that have possibilities in the direction of closer relations to modern life and modern problems. Again, the data indicate that the curriculum offerings have been becoming more extensive each year. In a sense, each of these inferences is probably correct.

Altho the data indicate that all size-groups of rural high schools are adding to their curriculum offerings more than they are dropping, two facts not mentioned before indicate that schools with enrolments of fewer than 150 pupils, and they comprise at present about 90 percent of the rural high schools, cannot extend their offerings much beyond what they are now offering. The first fact is that, with the present teaching staff, the pupil-teacher ratio in those schools is less than fifteen to one. The second fact is that the median teaching load of teachers in those schools at present is about four different subjects representing two major subjectmatter fields. Unless a new organization of subjectmatter reducing the number of subjects, or a new method making it possible for one teacher to handle successfully two or more subjects at a time, comes to our aid, some solution to the problem of curriculum offerings must be found apparently other than that of merely adding new subjects. Again, correspondence courses cannot, it would seem, be looked

to for a solution because of a number of inherent weaknesses, such as teachers untrained in courses pursued, and the lack of personal contact on the part of the pupil with persons interested in the subject studied.

There is, it would appear, a fundamental problem to be solved before adequate and suitable programs of studies can be provided in rural high schools. The data on characteristics of programs of studies and on requirements for graduation indicate the persistence of the theory of curriculum emphasizing the traditional academic core and the disciplinary value of certain specific subjects. The data on changes or trends indicate the entrance of the theory of subjects related to individual and social needs. These are really two irreconcilable points of view. According to the former all pupils in rural high schools, since we do not know what they may do ultimately, should be required to study the subjects ordinarily demanded for college entrance and of general value as disciplines. This point of view is supported by those who maintain that these traditional subjects should be the core of all rural high-school curriculums and that in the smaller schools they should be the curriculum. The second point of view which is less clearly defined and which has resulted in the introduction of the newer subjects, particularly in the larger schools, cannot be successful in the fullest sense so long as the traditional view has the weight it now has in rural high schools. Yet, this second point of view must, it seems to the writer, prevail ultimately, if the rural high school, particularly the smaller school, is to meet most adequately its educational responsibilities.

In the writer's judgment, the second point of view as it should be defined, will represent the application in the curriculum of the rural high school of a philosophy of secondary education with three major tenets: (1) that the curriculum offerings of the rural high school must contain educative materials representing all the various types of learning situations necessary for a rich and well-rounded growth and promotive of exploration of the various types of abilities; (2) that the subjects, or units of subjectmatter required of all pupils must be reduced to the minimum and must possess high proven values in promoting those personal and social characteristics and adjustments essential or highly desirable for all normal persons rather than those subjects regarded as valuable in the training of a select group with pronounced academic interests and abilities; and (3) that in the upper years there will not be one core but opportunity increasingly afforded the pupil to select and pursue one or more cores or sequences according to his interests, abilities, and needs. The adequate interpretation of such a philosophy of curriculum offerings will require the intimate study and analysis of the educational interests and needs of all children living in rural areas.

In conclusion, the consideration of the curriculum characteristics and trends in rural high schools indicates the operation of two conflicting and irreconcilable theories of secondary education. In practise we are still in large measure trying to meet the educational needs of all pupils thru curriculum materials originally designed to prepare a select group for entrance to college when the idea of general discipline was prevailing. Newer subjects of more

direct relation to the everyday affairs and activities of modern life as lived by the ordinary man and woman, and in which great group most of the pupils at present in our high schools will ultimately find their place, have been in recent years gaining some recognition in the curriculum offerings of rural high schools. They have become, however, only supplemental to the older vested subjects, rather than subjects regarded as having within themselves vital growth materials. Since the curriculum offerings of rural high schools are often severely limited, the most immediate and serious problem appears to be the determination of the major responsibilities and objectives of the smaller secondary schools and the development of primary curriculum offerings designed to yield the most in the way of direct values to the greatest number of rural boys and girls. Schools able to do more should then, it would seem, develop additional sequences and cores, as far as possible, or feasible, directly bearing upon the special interests and needs of specific groups and pupils.

SOME MAJOR CURRICULUM PROBLEMS IN THE RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL

WILLIAM H. BRISTOW, DEPUTY STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

A study made under the direction of the Society for the Study of Education in 1931 called attention to the fact that schools that were organized on the junior-senior high school basis seemed to offer the greatest amount of promise in connection with programs of rural education. Other studies which have been made have also found this to be true. The findings of Professor Spaulding in connection with the National Survey for Secondary Education, indicate very definitely that schools which have been reorganized on the junior-senior high school basis do offer to the boys and girls a more satisfactory program. These materials will be contained in detail in the report of the Survey.

The overlapping and inefficiency of the very small high school is generally recognized. Suggestions for improving the situation in isolated schools have been offered by many, particularly Mr. Gaumnitz of the United States Office of Education and Professor Winds, formerly of that office and now of the University of Virginia. Professor Winds is working intensively on a project in schools in one of the Virginia counties. In discussing the problem Mr. Gaumnitz has said:

Equalization in providing educational opportunities results in the establishment of many small high schools and the small high school as now commonly organized and administered, cannot provide equality of educational opportunity. Curriculum offerings in these small high schools are too limited and stereotyped to fit either the collected or individual needs of the children whose lives they touch.

Mr. Gaumnitz further states:

Thus the secondary education of the child attending the rural or small high school is in most cases circumscribed by an untrained and over-burdened teaching staff;

it is limited to a narrow and maladjusted program of educational activities; and it is handicapped by the meagerness or the entire absence of educational equipment.

The number of pupils available in the average local high-school district in rural communities is so small that in most cases it is impossible to furnish at reasonable costs a quality of secondary education commensurate with social need, and if such quality of education is undertaken, the cost is apt to become very high.

First, What is the worth to the development of rural children of the educational opportunities offered in these small high schools? Do the values obtained justify the expenditures? Are the social services resulting from the establishment and maintenance of a high school in every local community such as to warrant extreme efforts and costs?

Second, Can the same results and the same values be achieved thru better planning and better organization of our secondary-school program? Can these results be obtained at greatly reduced costs? Can plans be effected thru which equal expenditures will buy for the rural child a higher quality and a more useful type of secondary education than he now obtains?¹

There are many hopeful signs of progress along the line of forming a larger unit of school administration. Pennsylvania is now attempting to organize education with a larger unit of school administration. A local effort to reorganize schools in one county is described as follows:

An attempt is now being made in Columbia County to meet more satisfactorily the needs of the boys and girls of the community thru the organization of a series of small junior high schools. For the most part these schools take the place of organizations which previously included grades 9, 10, and 11. The years included in the junior high schools are grades 7, 8, 9, and 10.

In Columbia County the organization of three junior high schools has been made a part of the consolidation program and in a number of cases an attempt is also being made to work out a system of vocational agriculture and vocational home economics for pupils in grades 9 and 10.

The recent efforts in Missouri seem to hold the greatest possibility in readjusting the rural high-school program. In the Missouri program a complete system of junior-senior high schools has been suggested.

The problem of curriculum reorganization which confronts all secondary schools is even more important for small units. Suggestions which seem to be most pertinent are: (1) The integration and correlation of certain subjects, and the elimination of subjectmatter which is not pertinent to modern life; and (2) The reorganization of courses so as to be within the experience of rural boys and girls.

For a number of years suggestions have been made as to the use of correspondence courses in extending the work of the small secondary school. This is one of the most hopeful possibilities yet offered. Such correspondence courses would not only fit into the work of the day school, but would also provide opportunities for extending the services of the school to adults. It would eliminate the present tendency to have the whole program of studies of the school conditioned by those who are most influential in the community and who must have four years of Latin or some other special requirement

¹ Gaumnitz, Walter H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 13. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930, p. 66, 68, and 69.

to meet certain specific college requirements. It would make possible an extension of present opportunities which can never be hoped for except as some plan of directed study is made a part of the program of the small school. The administration of these courses will vary with local conditions.

The development of pupil personnel programs and guidance practises is as much needed in the small rural secondary school as in the larger school. A personnel program to accompany the other administrative readjustments in the school seems to be necessary, if we are to place in effect our suggestions with reference to individualizing pupil programs. Modification of records such as those developed by the American Council on Education to meet the needs of small schools, and to be used in solving individual curriculum problems, will be helpful.

It is a difficult task to convince teachers and principals in small schools that they do not know "all that should be known about their pupils." Close investigation reveals that the very situation in many of these schools prevents the school from having significant and meaningful information on which to guide and help the pupil.

STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

The practical man on the job who sees that children are coming to school and must be given the best educational opportunity possible while they are there, makes this one criticism—that some of the radical proponents of the larger system seem unwilling that any effort should be made to improve the instruction and the quality and quantity of educational opportunity in the one-teacher schools. It would look as if they were afraid that if the one-room school could be improved so that it gave a really rich or worthwhile educational opportunity that one of the main arguments for the larger unit would be taken away. However this may be from a theoretical standpoint, state superintendents of public instruction and county superintendents who have a very real and a very practical duty to perform will continue to seek out ways and means for providing new programs and new technics of teaching as well as new physical equipment to make the education of the rural child as interesting and as valuable as possible. Having attended a one-room school and having taught in one I find it is both an advantage and a disadvantage to me. I have never been able to share the ultra-pessimism of some people who have never had such experiences in a one-teacher rural school. And while I am convinced that many of the one-room schools in Illinois should be discontinued, I am also convinced that they can be made a very effective instrument for giving the young people a thoro and worthwhile education.

A recent survey in Illinois has shown that the children who come from the rural schools thru the small two- and three-year high schools into the senior high schools rank very high in their standing with those who have come up from the larger town and city systems. This, of course, may be due in part

to the education that comes from the life on the farm. But I am of the opinion that many of the sweeping criticisms which are leveled today against the one-teacher school have in mind the kind of school which has largely disappeared. Every year in Illinois it is my custom to visit one-teacher schools in a number of counties of the state. In those schools where they have installed what may be called the individual study plan for the pupils in the upper grades and where competent teachers are employed, I have seen as good a quality of teaching as I have found in the very best city-school systems. The old school where every class came up for recitation each day and where the teacher's time was largely given over to discipline and to hearing pupils recite little bits that they had committed to memory, may still exist here and there, but it is not the characteristic school. In some of the counties of Illinois there are rural school music supervisors employed by the several districts, who visit these schools and I have been surprised to find how effective and worthwhile this work is. In certain counties special teachers of reading from the teachers colleges meet with the younger rural-school teachers on Saturday and give them immediate aid in meeting their pressing difficulties. Moreover, each of the five teachers colleges has taken over a number of rural schools where the students who are preparing to teach in the rural schools make observations and assist the teachers in charge. They get that first-hand knowledge of how to organize and to instruct a one-teacher school. If anyone will take the trouble to visit these rural training schools and to see the spirit of enthusiasm and the unusual results which follow, they would at least be forced to conclude that there are one-room schools which are providing a very high-grade educational opportunity for their pupils.

EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION IN 1933

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, U. S. COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

This year some 44 state legislatures were in session at one time or another. It appeared to be a most important time for schools in view of the crisis. In general, we may say that education held its own. That is, in most of the states, it did not receive any serious set-backs. Furthermore, some of the legislators voted for reforms for which educators have worked for many years. In general, however, the movements for a larger school district and for higher qualifications for teachers which have had the approval of school experts for many years were left alone. Some of the more promising pieces of legislation passed are the following:

Alaska this year undid the damage which the legislature of four years ago did. It created a territorial board of education of five members appointed by the governor with the approval of both houses of the legislature. Each member will serve for six years and this board will appoint the commissioner of education. Anybody who knows Alaska and the difficulty of travel therein will realize how ridiculous it was for a man who was to receive \$5000 a year to seek public election in that vast territory.

The Iowa legislature provided that a board of education may establish a kindergarten upon the filing of a petition signed by the parents or guardians of twenty-five or more children of kindergarten age. This is a step in the right direction and we believe will lead to more kindergartens.

Indiana made provision for state reimbursements of school corporations in the amount of \$600 per annum. It further provided that the minimum salary shall not be less than \$800 for elementary teachers and \$1000 for high-school teachers.

In Maine, the legislature provided for the appointment of a commission of fifteen representative citizens to study public-school finances. The commission is empowered to employ such experts as, in its judgment, seem advisable.

New Mexico provided for free textbooks to all the school children of the state. These are to be paid for from an excise tax of four cents per gallon on lubricating oil. The legislature also provided for the abolition of county boards of education and created a school district which shall be known as the "Rural schools of ——— County, New Mexico." Such school district may take in any territory not already a part of it or annexed to a rural municipal independent district. The boards will consist of five members elected for six-year terms. It also provided a statewide retirement system for teachers.

New York has provided for fewer supervisory districts. Whenever a vacancy shall occur in the office of a superintendent the state department is required to conduct a survey and ascertain whether or not it is necessary to fill this place.

North Carolina established a statewide eight-month school system in place of the six-month system which it created in 1931.

The Oregon legislature set up an educational commission composed of seven citizens appointed by the governor to study the matters of organization and finance in the elementary and secondary schools of the state.

The Washington legislature provided for greater equalization of public-school support by increased state contributions. Of this legislation, Superintendent Showalter wrote:

The legislature just closed has given us some of the most progressive educational measures ever enacted in this state. Indeed, more important school law has been written during the last sixty days than has been passed during an entire decade. This has been primarily due to two things. First, the educational forces of the state have stood as a unit, with all of their friends cooperating in support of the school measures introduced. Second, the governor of our state has stood squarely back of his promises to improve our school conditions. The first is a mark of higher attainment in professional attitude. The second is the fulfillment of a man's unqualified faith in the worth of public-school education. . . .

The legislature of West Virginia has abolished all independent school districts and has vested the control of schools in a new county board of education. It has provided for the election of the county superintendents hereafter by this county board. It also fixes higher qualifications for schoolboard

members and for county superintendents. The legislature provided that the minimum term for elementary and high schools shall be nine months or such part thereof as the maximum levy and state equalization fund will permit.

Many citizens, and including school people of course, have been eager to learn where sufficient funds have been provided to avoid serious loss in educational facilities. Some of the outstanding tax legislation for the support of schools may be noted in Idaho, Indiana, Minnesota, South Dakota, and Washington.

Idaho has levied a tax on chain stores of \$5 for one store to \$500 for 20 stores. This money goes to the support of the school equalization fund of the state.

Indiana imposed a tax on intangible property. Ten percent of this goes to the state and 90 percent to the county. Of the latter, three-fourths are to be distributed to the school corporations.

In Minnesota, the legislature provided first for an income tax and the creation of a fund from this tax to be distributed to the state on the basis of compulsory school age population. It, too, provided for a tax on chain stores, the revenue from which is to go to the schools.

South Dakota also enacted a gross income tax which it is estimated will enrich the schools by approximately four million dollars per year.

Washington enacted a business and occupational excise tax which it is estimated will approximate eight million dollars per year, all of which is to be used for the current school funds. This legislature also enacted a tax on chain stores, 90 percent of the revenue from which is to be used for school appropriations.

Idaho, New Mexico, and Washington are also among the states which have enacted improved methods for equalizing their school funds.

We must at this time, however, express our regret at what seems to be a backward step in the state of Arkansas. This state abolished the state superintendency and the state board of education, giving the governor the power to appoint a temporary board to serve until a state superintendent can be elected by the people. It also abolished all county superintendents and placed their duties in the hands of a county examiner to be appointed by the county court for a two-year term and to receive a salary not in excess of \$650 per year.

From Maine, we have a report of a reduction of \$250,000 in the state budget for schools. Maine is one of those states in which the state's proportion of the schools has been about the same percentage for the past forty years. In 1930 it was a little over 2 percent less than it was in 1890. We regret that the legislature saw fit to make this reduction.

In Iowa, we note that a bill providing for standardization and centralization of the purchase of supplies was defeated. We do not know anything of the merits of the particular bill under discussion, but we do wish to observe that in general this is a backward step.

We note with regret reductions in teachers' salaries in many states. Idaho has reduced its appropriation from 20 to 39 percent of the amount appro-

priated in the last biennium. Iowa, we are told has fixed a \$40 per month minimum flat salary for teachers holding all types of certificates and with all kinds of experience.

Maryland is reported to have reduced all county taxes from 67 cents to 47 cents per hundred dollars of assessed valuation.

Preliminary reports from the election, June 17, from California seem to indicate that a constitutional amendment having to do with school support has passed. This would appear to put more of the burden of school support upon the state. We cannot be sure however at this distance.

All in all educators must feel thankful that in a day of such distress with so many people out of work, that support for the schools seems to be forthcoming in most of the districts. The schools that have been closed because of finances have been remarkably few and they have been in the hardest hit portions of the country.

MEETING THE EMERGENCY PROBLEMS IN CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

C. P. ARCHER, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, MOORHEAD, MINN.

Emergency problems in consolidated schools are much the same type as in other schools; namely, those relating to finance. Evidence collected by the United States Office of Education and by the writer indicates that the most frequent method of meeting the emergency is to cut the budget and reduce the salaries of teachers and other employees. Evidence collected from seven midwestern states indicates that the reduction trends previously reported by the United States Office of Education for the past two years will be even greater for the school year 1933-34 than for any previous years. If we are to judge by recent reports, we are also facing a radical rise in commodity prices. The probable decrease in the value of the dollar will mean much hardship for teachers who have received for 1933-34 the sharpest reduction in salary of any year, and this deep cut is made without regard to the fact that salaries have been seriously reduced for the past two or three years.

In addition to salary reductions for teachers, janitors, and bus drivers, there is some evidence of curtailment of activities such as music, art, and occasionally athletics. Some teaching combinations have been effected which enable schools to discharge a few teachers and thus save some money. In some cases, bus routes have been lengthened to reduce costs. In most cases there is evidence of an effort on the part of teachers to accept the responsibility and carry on a full program of activities, even with a larger load and on a reduced salary.

Few changes have occurred which indicate permanent improvements in education. The depression, which should have brought many needed reforms, has brought little. It should be the mission of those of us who are interested in the future welfare of education to keep before the minds of the people the lessons of the depression, and exert every effort to secure permanent changes which will help prevent a return or continuation of present conditions. Some needed changes are as follows:

1. *A new system of taxation*—This means the substitution of income taxes, sales taxes, luxury taxes, and the like for a part of our present property tax.

2. *Larger units of taxation and administration*—Records of consolidated and rural schools reveal enormous waste of money and effort in the purchase of supplies and in the employment of teachers. The county or larger district unit should be used.

3. *Radical changes in curriculum*—We must prepare boys and create, and thus make new jobs, rather than merely prepare for the old ones in the same way. Farm boys and girls must also be taught all the way thru school how to take their places in the political and social life of our nation. They must also learn to cooperate for common economic gain, if they are to compete with other industries.

4. *The elimination of our useless and inefficient system of teacher appointments by the application method*—Teacher appointment and promotion should be based on records of fitness without solicitation of the teachers themselves.

SAFEGUARDING INSTRUCTION IN THE EMERGENCY

RAY P. SNYDER, DIRECTOR, RURAL EDUCATION DIVISION, STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ALBANY, N. Y.

The rural-school problem is an economic problem. School finance consists of at least two factors—wealth and organized ability to use wealth wisely and efficiently. Quality of instruction is dependent upon both factors.

People want trained teachers when they are so organized that they can express their desires in a community of interest by the selection of efficient school officials.

Up to its capacity the small school is not inherently weak. It is what lies back of the small school—the district unit of administration—that is weak. Some small schools are very progressive schools.

Due to a scientific system of state aid, instruction has been maintained in New York in all schools of all types for the school year of thirty-eight weeks. The equalization quota is the “gold standard” of New York’s system of state aid around which revolve all other quotas and types of aid. Its chief factors are valuation and number of pupils in school attendance. The protective value of this system of aid is due to the fact that New York’s budget is derived entirely from sources of indirect taxation. Thus, real estate is benefited by this plan of aid.

Few states have the resources of indirect taxation that New York has. Therefore, for the benefit of America the federal government must find a scientific way to distribute school aid to the less wealthy states and particularly to those that are largely agricultural.

If it were not for a scientific system of aid many schools in rural areas of New York would now be closed as they are closed in some states of the union. Budgets have been slashed and salaries lowered but nevertheless, because of a sound plan of aid, all New York state’s schools have been kept open. New central districts have been organized, transportation has been provided for high-school children, rural training departments have been organized.

A program of instruction in rural areas on a basis of equality of opportunity is impossible without equalization of school support.

RURAL PROBLEMS AND THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

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I wish to acknowledge at the beginning of this discussion that it is much easier to enumerate the problems confronting those of us who serve in rural districts than to suggest cures for them.

Diversified and manifold are the duties imposed upon the county superintendent of schools. In fact, other than the three specific duties as administrator, supervisor, and clerical machine, the county superintendent's office must be a clearing house, a sort of refuge for a multitude of details that do not rightfully belong there but have no home elsewhere.

Sell the school to the community—The county superintendent should be a good salesman. To be sure, the school belongs to the community, but very few fully appreciate the benefits derived from it. Selling the school to the community requires personal contact on the part of the county superintendent and the teacher. Never miss an opportunity to talk with school directors and the community about the school. Community clubs and parent-teacher associations afford a splendid opportunity to create school interest and sell the school to the community. Educational progress is in direct proportion to the public opinion of the community. In order to provide better school advantages we must improve public sentiment.

Organize school officers—In my county we have a School Officers Association. We meet twice each year, in March and in August, and talk over school problems. Out of this cooperation have developed many helpful factors. At the close of the school year each board meets with the teacher and also the superintendent. Plans are made for the coming year, a school budget is outlined, and the tax levy is then made accordingly.

It pays to cultivate schoolboards, always striving to be diplomatic and tactful, and never losing our sense of humor. This must be the aim of the county superintendent. I trust the time will soon come when qualifications will be required for those serving on schoolboards, the one heading the list to be an interest in and knowledge of school affairs. This would lessen the work of the county superintendent.

Cooperate with all agencies that are organized for the good of the community—The school is only one agency in the great field of education. Perhaps it is the one that most of us are serving and the one we are most interested in. The school and the county superintendent must cooperate with all agencies that are working for the helpfulness of boys and girls and the betterment of the community. Let us teach cooperation and sympathetic understanding. Let us teach the Golden Rule, and this must be done in our rural communities by personal contact.

Curriculum—Too long we have endeavored to fit our children to the curriculum rather than plan the course to meet the needs of the children. Too long have we put all the children thru the same mill and how sadly have we been disappointed when we did not have a uniform grist. Happily

this fallacy is being rapidly corrected and the curriculum is made so elastic that it conforms to the idiosyncrasies of each particular child. This can be done only thru the good judgment and common sense of the teacher and the cooperation of the parents.

The teacher—Down thru the years, one of the problems of the rural district was to secure competent and qualified teachers. The old theory that anyone can teach in a rural district has been exploded and schoolboards are demanding that teachers be properly trained and qualified to teach the one-room country school. In my county our boards require one year of normal or college training and many of our rural teachers are college graduates. These standards have been brought about thru the interest of our school officers.

In my section of the country it is not so much lack of training on the part of the teacher as it is lack of sympathy and understanding of rural life and its environment. The art of knowing how to get along with the community is a great asset to the rural teacher. We covet for all rural teachers adequate preparation and sufficient training for efficient teaching, but we also realize that with all this must come energy and persistence to use these required facilities. Meager training plus an abundance of energy and determination to succeed often spell success, while splendid training and preparation coupled with little desire to succeed usually spell failure.

Seemingly the all-important problem facing our public-school system is the financial situation. I do not agree that it is. I have faith in our great commonwealth, in the American taxpayer. I have faith to believe that out of this overwhelming crisis will dawn a new day for our republic, a day when those ideals of righteousness and truth will prevail over greed, selfishness, and political chicanery. Our people must and will realize in a keener way that the perpetuity of our government rests upon the training, the culture of our youth, and we can progress only thru the enlightenment and character of our young people.

This sentiment will surely hasten the day when here in our United States we will be willing and anxious to spend our money keeping children in school rather than incarcerated in our penal institutions. Statistics today show that we are spending approximately ten times as much for the maintenance of penal institutions as on the upkeep of our schools. They also show that only a very small percent of children graduating from the eighth grade ever darken the door of such institutions. Last year in Illinois we spent \$150,000,000 for schools, \$520,000,000 for luxuries, and \$850,000,000 for automobiles and upkeep. Only two and a half cents out of each American dollar is spent for the maintenance of the public schools and twenty-two cents is spent for luxuries.

Upon the rural schools of today is imposed a perplexing and challenging task. They must educate youth for the new conditions of rural life. The school must not turn the dreams of the ambitious youth to the city as the only challenge for worthy achievement, but must make the farm a more attractive place in which to live and stimulate material prosperity and happiness of the nation.

PRESERVING ESSENTIALS IN TEACHING COUNTRY SCHOOLS

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What are the essentials in the education of rural children? They may be divided under two heads: (a) The so-called practical subjects necessary for earning a living, and (b) the cultural subjects necessary for a well-rounded life. These two essential objectives are very closely related to each other. In the large, they do not differ widely from the objectives of the town or city-school system. Because of the isolation of his environment, the rural child in many instances needs to have much more emphasis placed upon the cultural subjects.

Reading, arithmetic, penmanship, geography and history are probably unquestioned everywhere as essential subjects and are in no great danger of elimination in this emergency. Cultural subjects, such as music, art, together with some of the newer subjects like health education, home economics (meaning homemaking) and industrial arts or vocational education are not as well understood in rural communities and are under fire at the present time.

There is no question in the minds of educators as to the importance of these subjects and no need of taking time to argue about their merits. The question is, as my subject indicates, how to acquaint the public with their importance in order that they shall not be eliminated from the curriculum. The need of the interpretation of these subjects to the public is not confined, however, to rural communities. In my opinion, one great reason for the attack on all these school subjects is that the educators have not learned how to explain their methods to the taxpayers in simple, non-technical language that can be easily understood, that sounds sensible, and that shows plainly why people should be spending their money to support the schools and to pay for the teaching of these subjects. The greatest need during the coming year in rural communities is for teachers and county superintendents to make definite plans for explaining the curriculum and methods to the everyday citizen in this simple language. If any of these subjects cannot be explained in this way, then I should have great doubts of the wisdom of retaining them in the curriculum.

Teachers get together in their meetings and spend hours and hundreds of words in explaining their purposes to one another, but the public at home remains in the same hazy condition of mind regarding the school regardless of these meetings. The men and women in the rural communities are working hard to pay their taxes, to feed and clothe their children, and cannot be expected to read educational journals or to study education. They base their criticisms of the school largely upon the way they were taught when they went to school. Many of them had no music or art in their schools and so it seems to them a foolish expenditure. If the educator can only learn how, thru the press, thru public meetings, and thru personal visits to the home, to

translate his school language into common, everyday, sensible English and to formulate his arguments in words that the ordinary person can understand, half the battle for all the school subjects will be won.

Parents have been blamed too much for not visiting the schools. Fathers and mothers are having a hard struggle during the busy working day to earn a living. The school and its interests must be brought to them thru evening gatherings and thru the newspapers. Educators will do well thru the coming critical months to give attention to this matter and to work out a careful systematic plan for this interpretation of the schools to the public.

Department of School Health and Physical Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION had its beginning as the Department of Child Study which was created at the Asbury Park meeting in 1894. See p. 40 of the 1894 *Proceedings*. In 1911 the name was changed to the Department of Child Hygiene. See *Proceedings* 1911: 870. In July, 1924, the Department was merged with the Department of Physical and Health Education under the name of the Department of School Health and Physical Education. See *Proceedings* 1924:96.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, A. W. Thompson, State Director of Health and Physical Education, State Capitol, Lansing, Mich.; *Vicepresident*, Edna W. Bailey, Associate Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, James E. Rogers, Director, National Physical Education Service, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y.; *Executive Committee*: A. G. Ireland, State Director of Health and Physical Education, 1208 Trenton Trust Building, Trenton, N. J. (Term expires 1934); William E. Burdick, State Director of Physical Education, 7 East Mulberry Street, Baltimore, Md. (Term expires 1935); Ethel Perrin, American Child Health Association, 450 Seventh Avenue, New York, N. Y. (Term expires 1936); F. W. Maroney, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. (Term expires 1937).

The Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1893: 615-678	1903: 817-846	1911: 905-938	1919: 315-321	1927: 561-581
1895: 944-950	1904: 803-841	1912: 1141-1151	1920: 311-321	1928: 545-567
1896: 893-936	1905: 755-779	1913: 667-694	1921: 517-522	1929: 543-558
1897: 870-915	1906: 711-713	1914: 683-720	1922: 1085-1098	1930: 501-527
1898: 929-959	1907: 925-950	1915: 971-994	1923: 744	1931: 541-560
1899: 1064-1096	1908: 998-1045	1916: 681-698	1924: 637-649	1932: 455-466
1901: 758-770	1909: 745-788	1917: 521-533	1925: 577-597	
1902: 739-758	1910: 921-948	1918: 339-357	1926: 601-624	

GROWTH COMPARISON OF ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

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In a questionnaire gotten out to the teachers of physical education in junior and senior high schools, the teachers were asked to report on the height and weight increases of boys on football squads and also on a comparable group of boys not taking part in football.

The result of this investigation showed in a crude way, and particularly in junior high school, that boys taking part in football (and we play *touch*, not the regulation game) did not grow either in height or weight as much as did boys who only took part in the required physical education program. There appeared to be without question an appreciable slowing up of the growth process for the boys taking part in athletics during the period of competition, as compared with boys not so taking part. This slowing up of growth processes was sufficiently large so that it was a measurable thing, both for increase in height and increase in weight. Another noticeable fact was that more boys taking part in athletics lost weight, and that they lost more weight than did the boys of the non-athletic group. The change in rate of growth in senior high school, while noticeable, was not as marked as it was in junior high school. This, no doubt, because the older boys are nearer their maximum sizes and the rate of growth is not as great as in the younger "teen" age boys—the growth curve either weight or height in general flattening out as the boys reach maturity. The gross records coming in from all the schools, however, were not sufficiently accurate to warrant the placing of a great deal of dependence upon them, since in some instances the checking of height and weight had no doubt been left to boys and some rather apparent inaccuracies appeared.

Records were next taken of the boys taking part in athletics as opposed to those not active in athletics in junior high schools only. The importance of accuracy was stressed and in carefully checking the results turned in, the reports from three schools contained no discoverable apparent inaccuracies. This group consisted of 67 boys in the athletic group and 65 boys in the non-athletic group, paired according to weight and height at the beginning of the study.

From these two groups, it was discovered that between the period September 1 to December 1, the sixty-five non-athletic boys gained in weight an average of 3.15 pounds per boy and gained in height an average of 35/100 of an inch, just over one-third of an inch. The group of sixty-seven boys competing in athletics gained on the average of 1.18 lbs. per boy and gained in height an average of 28/100 of an inch, just over a quarter of an inch. These figures are gross figures covering boys of all ages and sizes and for that reason are possibly not particularly impressive, altho certainly they are highly suggestive.

The next step in the investigation consisted of a study of two groups one of twenty-five boys and the other of twenty-eight boys, observed very carefully over the period September 23 to December 2. The results obtained checked with those first quoted; namely, a substantial positive increase in growth as measured by weight and height for the non-athletic group as compared with the athletic.

Following this study attention was directed to a study by Boas who points out that there is a different growth rate for boys of the same age but of different initial heights.

The experiment was therefore continued in a school where the boys in the two groups were carefully equated as follows. Each of the boys competing in athletics was matched with a boy not in athletics on the following points at the beginning of the experiment: Age, weight, height, and P.L.R. (Probable Learning Rate—equivalent to I.Q.), thus eliminating in large measure the problem of the influence of age, weight, and height on growth, as suggested by Boas. That is, one boy seventeen years old weighing 150 lbs., being 65 inches tall, probably does not have the same probability of growth a boy aged seventeen years, weighing 120 lbs., being 60 inches tall has. An attempt was made as described above to hold constant experimentally—not statistically—the three items of age, weight, and height. The average gain for the group of boys in athletics was 1.06 lbs.; the average gain for the boys not in athletics was 2.43. Again a positive height increment was discovered in favor of the non-athletic boys.

Three items were considered in the data next presented which were collected by Mr. Riley of Fairmount Junior High School. They were: weight, height, and lung capacity. The following data are presented, then, for all the boys over the total three-year period. Because the school is a small one, and population shifting, the final groups contained only some thirty boys each—a highly selected group but one considered representative nevertheless.

Your attention is directed to the known and recorded fact that the boys under observation were either participants or non-participants in athletics for the entire three-year period. This item is of importance.

Considering, then, first, weight—the average increase in weight per boy for the athletic group for the three-year period was 23.7 lbs., while that of non-athletic boys was 30.85 lbs. Using Garrett's Formula to determine the reliability of the difference between two averages, one finds that were the experiment to be repeated one hundred times under similar conditions like results would be received regarding increases in weight between athletic and non-athletic groups ninety-eight times.

Regarding the height increase as between the non-athletic group and the athletic group over the three-year period, Riley finds the average increment of growth in height for the non-athletic group 3.79 inches, while for the athletic group he finds 1.85 inches. Treating these data statistically as described before, one finds that there is an absolute certainty that the non-

athletic group will gain more in height than the athletic group were the experiment to be performed an indefinite number of times under similar conditions. For the statistically-minded, the standard deviation of the sigma of the differences of the two averages is plus or minus $7\frac{1}{2}$.

Considering now, lung capacity, the average increase in lung capacity over the three-year period for the athletic group is 37.9 units. For the non-athletic group 54.5 units. From Garrett's Formula, we find that were we to repeat this experiment 100 times under similar conditions, like results would be secured 99.5 times.

When the average ages of the two groups of boys were considered, it was discovered that there was exactly one year's difference between the average of the groups. The average age of boys taking part in athletics was 16 years 8 months, while the average age of the boys not taking part in athletics was 15 years 8 months—this at the end of the three-year period. Therefore, in order to equate the ages experimentally, the growth data for the first year of the boys not taking part in athletics were eliminated and compared with the growth data of the same items for the first two years of the boys participating in athletics. This means then that the following data apply to two groups of boys—one taking part in athletics, and one not taking part in athletics, but over the same *two-year* age period, namely 13 years 8 months to 15 years 8 months.

So far as weight is concerned, it is discovered that the non-athletic group gained 18.65 pounds and the athletic group gained 17.75 pounds. Treating these data as described before, were the experiment to be conducted one hundred times under similar conditions, the non-athletic group would gain the most sixty-five times.

So far as height is concerned, the average gain being 3.06 inches for non-athletes and 1.27 inches for athletes, there are 9999.95 chances out of 10,000 that were the experiment performed as described, the boys taking part in athletics will not be found to gain as much in height as those not taking part, or statistically speaking the standard deviation or sigma of the differences of the means would be ± 5.5 .

So far as lung capacity is concerned, it is discovered that the chances are 98.4 out of every 100 that the non-athletic group will have a greater development in lung capacity than will the athletic group. The averages found are 45 units increase for the non-athletes as opposed to 21 units increase of the athletes, or ± 2.14 sigmas. All of these figures are, even in spite of the small number of boys observed, startlingly thought-provoking.

A consideration of these data then seems to indicate a substantial difference in the growth rate of boys in junior high school according to year. Further, the growth rate for height appears to be appreciably different from that of weight.

Boas points out that growth rates for boys of the same age but noticeably different sizes is sure to be different. The non-athlete in the group studied

is 1 inch shorter than the athlete, but 3.6 inches heavier, age constant. These differences do not seem sufficiently large to affect the results of the study.

After the validity of all the data presented has been carefully considered, there remains the question or problem as to whether or not anything of a vital nature has been discovered. The groups compared have been selected by the natural process of the inclination of the individual; that is, no boy in the athletic group had any compulsion placed upon him to take part in athletics. In other words, he had a desire to compete. At the same time, no boy in the non-athletic group was required to refrain from competition. He just didn't have the desire to compete. Therefore, since these two groups are separated by a marked difference of desire and are natural and rather highly selected groups (selection being contingent upon the single characteristic of desire to compete in athletics) one cannot help but ask the following questions. Were the boys in the athletic group denied the privilege of competition, would they have gained more in height and weight than they did? The second question, of course, is the reverse of this: were the boys in the non-athletic group required to compete in athletics, would their growth have been any the less?

There appears to be little or no possibility of securing data directly which would even tend to suggest answers to these two questions. Those of us who have had experience in coaching athletic teams have many times attempted to interest large, strong, healthy boys in athletic competition, only to discover that the competitive spirit was entirely lacking and, therefore, expected performance was not obtained.

All of us are entirely familiar with the fact that two boys or men of exactly the same size and weight to the pound and inch are not necessarily evenly matched in any competitive enterprise.

Dr. T. Wingate Todd of the Brush Foundation, Western Reserve University, suggests a solution to the problem which is at least worthy of considerable thought. Dr. Todd's suggestion is that boys of athletic temperament mature earlier than do boys of non-athletic temperament, and that therefore, since the athletic group is composed of boys who have matured earlier, age considered, than the group of non-athletic boys, the athletic boy is not going to grow as much as the non-athletic boy over the period studied. In other words, the curve of average growth either of weight or height for athletic boys would be found to lie above and to have a more pronounced slope than that of the non-athletic boys thru the earlier years—from ten to twelve or even fourteen years of age. After this point the slope of the curve of the growth for the athletic group would naturally fall off, and therefore be found to have a less pronounced slope than that for the non-athletic group.

There remains then the outstanding job of determining not only the rate of growth of two groups during the period of athletic competition but the rate of growth of two groups prior to athletic competition.

A study to determine the truth or falsity of Dr. Todd's suggestion would

cover a five- to eight-year period, but it seems to be well worth the time and effort spent since certainly no one wishes to condemn interschool athletic competition on incomplete data with so large a possibility that after all, the data, while telling the truth over the period named, is but a half-truth which is at all times most dangerous and damaging.

Boas points out that the period of maximum average growth is 14 years 6 months \pm eleven months—or from 13 years 5 months to 15 years 7 months or corresponding to the junior high-school age. Therefore, if the physical education program is important anywhere as affecting growth, it is most important in the junior high-school years.

In conclusion, more problems are thrown in just to complicate the situation further. If the growth increments in weight, height, and lung capacity are affected by competition in athletics as indicated in the studies reported

(a) Who knows but that the growth or development of the *mind* may also be affected?

(b) Is it the nervous strain of athletics or the excessive expenditure of energy which causes the difference?

(c) Can it be determined by controlled experiment?

(d) What part does maturity take in athletics?

(e) Do the more mature boys only compete?

(f) Is there a permanent loss for the boy in athletics, or does he have a period of accelerated growth compensating for the loss during the athletic season?

(g) Does the boy of rapid growth during his fourteenth year become the athlete?

(h) Would it be better to have physical education five periods per week for certain age groups and excuse older or younger boys entirely?

These are but a few of the problems suggested. Many others of greater importance have no doubt suggested themselves to you.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF CHILD HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS TO THE HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAM

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Demonstrations will, in this paper, be interpreted as including those projects whose purpose is to put into practise the conclusions of research. They are not research but are the essential next step, working out ways and means by which the truths uncovered by research may be utilized in the ordinary course of human existence. Demonstrations take the results of research out of the laboratory into life. They work out the difficulties to be encountered in making use of the accepted conclusions of research and, if unsurmountable obstacles are met with, they refer the problem back to the research workers. Later on then, when research has reached a new level, another demonstration group somewhere, under another name it may be, will put results into trial practise. Thus, progress.

The long series of these oscillations between research and demonstration which have marked the development of health education would, if it were possible to trace, be outside the scope of this paper. Finally, the time seemed

ripe for a more comprehensive try-out of the net conclusions thus far generally agreed upon as to the essentials of child health. A group of more comprehensive projects, called child health demonstrations, were launched by the Commonwealth Fund and have now become public health history.

In the perspective of the intervening years, some generalizations stand out which have stood the test of subsequent thinking, of paramount importance, including all the rest, is that of the power of coordinated effort, the utter ineffectiveness of discrete. From this major assumption of the essential unit nature of the problem follow certain corollaries.

1. That health education is not a specific member of the curriculum but that the connotation of the word is twofold and may more accurately be expressed as health in education and education in health.

2. That the problem of teaching health is the same as the teaching problem in general. In other words—the trouble with health is that it is being taught as badly, or almost as badly, as are the other subjects.

3. That all functions of the child (including the learning process) are functions of the whole organism.

4. That this organism is an organic part of the whole community and no one of its problems can be considered apart from its membership in the social group. Education cannot be carried on in sections, by an arbitrary time-table.

5. That this organism cannot be dealt with in cross section but is literally a part of an infinite and unbroken physical chain, extending back to remotest ancestry.

6. That the acceptance of the unit nature of the responsibility for the education of the child does not complicate but simplifies, and that any sincere cooperative effort bears fruit amazingly out of proportion to the effort expended by any one individual of the group. And conversely, that one weak link nullifies the effort of the rest.

7. That our great need is to revive the power which we seem literally to have lost, of governing our behavior by our judgment, to act from reasoned premises. We accept the testimony of scientific authority as to what is necessary to do in order to bear and rear healthy children. And in spite of a facile emotionality in our declared love of children, we act in direct denial of the dicta of unquestioned authority.

8. That this inability to act from reasoned premises is itself the most serious health problem in education. It is the logical, the inescapable result of our acceptance of the easiest way—the substitution for real teaching of the lazy-backs of artificial incentives. The child is so used to the rewards and punishments which have no causal relationship to the behavior which calls them forth, that it is not strange that by the time high school is reached there is literally no power to order his own conduct by his own thinking.

9. That the highest aim of education, the development of the highest degree of individuality in the pupil, is reached by supplying all most uniformly with the fundamental essentials of vigorous development common to all. The individual differences were provided for a generation or a thousand

generations ago, and individual characteristics flower most diversely on the sturdiest stock. This, in the opinion of the writer, is thus far the culminating contribution of the long series of efforts alternating between research and demonstration, to bring fundamental order out of the chaos of individual education: to tell the teacher and the parent that this is not the bewildering problem of planning for diversity, but the comprehensible one of planning for the few universally accepted and demonstrated attainable essentials for building a vigorous child—not a bright child, nor a musical child, nor a beautiful child, not even a white child, but a child. Then surround it with nothing but freedom, and individuality takes care of itself.

But neglect one essential, let one member of the coordinating human environment of the child deny his responsibility, and the work of the rest might as well have been left undone.

REPORT ON THE EVALUATION OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS PREPARING TEACHERS FOR SERVICE IN HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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It appears (1) that every child in the elementary and secondary schools is entitled to be influenced by a health and physical education program adapted to his varied and changing needs; (2) that every child is entitled to be taught by a carefully selected and well-prepared teacher; (3) that teachers must be selected and trained in an institution according to some plan; and (4) that these things should be guaranteed to the child by the state.

The state has at least five avenues thru which it can exercise the function of guaranteeing to the child the opportunity for an education: (1) legal enactments; (2) distribution of financial aid; (3) the granting of certificates to teachers; (4) the approval of institutions for teacher-training purposes; and (5) the approval of local courses of study. States differ in their willingness to exercise control thru these and other avenues and also differ in their standards. We can agree that the functions mentioned are legitimate state functions.

Boards of education, school superintendents, and principals generally desire to employ well-qualified teachers. In the fields of health and physical education they are much confused because they do not know which teacher-training institutions are doing good work. The ability of institutions to prepare teachers, from the standpoint of number and quality of their staff members, facilities, and course offerings, varies greatly. How can the school administrator who interviews an applicant for a position in health and physical education be sure the professional preparation has been of good quality? Can a set of standards be formulated and then be used in evaluating the programs of institutions professing to train health and physical education teachers for certain types of positions? Can we assist administrators to improve school

programs thru better teachers, and help teacher-training institutions themselves to see and do their work better by developing standards which they must meet and maintain before their names appear on a certified list as providing an adequate teacher-training program?

In developing a set of standards with which to evaluate the ability of an institution to prepare teachers for service in health and physical education, the point of beginning is with the needs of the child who is to be taught by the teacher. A study of the physical, mental, and social needs of children will determine for us the program of health and physical education to be provided in a particular school segment. The program must be taught by a teacher. The teacher must be prepared in an institution. The teacher-training institution should provide the staff, facilities, and courses which will prepare the teacher to teach well the program of health and physical education which the child needs. It is the business of the state to choose the institutions which may prepare teachers for certain fields of service and then grant certificates which entitle the trainee to teach after he has completed satisfactorily the prescribed course, and has met other requirements.

While state certification requirements and teacher-training curriculums are intimately related, agreement on the former should not precede agreement on the latter. State certification requirements should grow out of a knowledge of the teacher-training program necessary for the preparation of teachers so they will be competent to teach the program the child needs. In our problem, therefore, we need not be greatly disturbed over the inequality between states in their standards of certification. The real problem for us is to secure substantial agreement on what constitutes an adequate teacher-training program in health and physical education, and how this can be measured.

Teacher-training institutions professing to prepare teachers for service in health and physical education in the elementary and secondary schools must be familiar with the programs which are taught and which should be taught in these schools to meet the health and physical education needs of children. The common and basic characteristics of an adequate health and physical education program in the elementary and secondary schools are:

1. Every pupil enrolled in the elementary and secondary schools should have a health and physical education program daily. Physical activity is essential for normal growth and development and for health maintenance.

2. The length of physical education periods should be related to the age of pupils. The instructional period in elementary schools should be from 20 to 30 minutes in length; in junior high schools from 40 to 50 minutes; in the senior high schools from 50 to 60 minutes; and in the junior college 60 minutes. Pupils of elementary-school age need from 3 to 5 hours of physical activity each day in order to develop the organic vitality needed as a basis for good health. Periods before school, morning recess, noon hour, afternoon recess, and after school should be utilized as additional play periods under the supervision of competent teachers.

3. An educative and protective program in health and physical education should be provided.

4. The physical education program should be largely natural in type, rather than formal. Play which involves natural bodily movements and the big muscles is more interesting to children than participation in formal exercises invented by adults.

5. The health and physical education program should include a large variety of activities. Each type of activity should make a general and specific contribution to the development of children.

6. Emphasis on the instructional, intramural, interschool and play day programs in physical education should be well balanced. Girls should not engage in interschool athletic contests; intramural athletics and play days are more developmental for the great mass of girls. For boys, interschool athletic championships might well be limited to sensibly arranged local leagues, and winning games should not be the main objective. No highly organized interschool athletic competition should be provided for pupils below the seventh grade.

7. Above the sixth grade, separate classes in physical education should be arranged for boys and girls. Men teachers should teach boys, and women teachers teach girls. For social development, boys' and girls' classes should occasionally be combined for activities which permit, such as swimming, tennis, archery, volley ball, and social dancing.

8. In the secondary school, considerable emphasis should be placed on physical education activities which are useful to adolescents and adults during their leisure time. Swimming, tennis, handball, volley ball, golf, and rhythms are examples of such activities.

9. Extraneous awards for participation in health and physical education activities, if given at all, should be limited to awards having little money value. The joy which comes from participation and accomplishment in activities is more lasting than the satisfaction of receiving awards.

10. The school should provide a health protection program sufficient to meet the needs of all pupils. This program should include protection of physical, mental, and social health. Every child should be physically and emotionally well before the school should spend money in trying to educate him. The services of physicians, nurses, dentists, and other health service experts are necessary. Every effort should be made to make the school environment safe and hygienic.

11. Records of pupils' condition, behavior, and attainments in health and physical education should be kept. Records of health examinations, physical examinations, enrollment, class and activity assignments, and achievements in various phases of the program should be kept and used to the advantage of the child.

12. The health and physical education program should be adapted to the needs, capacities, and interests of the child. Pupils' needs should be determined thru examinations conducted by health service experts and teachers. Children differ in their physical, mental, and social needs. The health and

physical education program should contribute to the development of every pupil according to his needs.

13. Provision for exemption of pupils from health or physical examinations should be made for those who object to such examinations. Exemption from examinations should not excuse pupils from the health and physical education program. No pupil should be excused from physical education.

14. The school should work closely with the home in an effort to secure the correction of defects found thru the examination of pupils. Community agencies should secure the correction of remedial defects of pupils from indigent families.

15. Pupils returning to school after a long illness should for a time have a modified program of physical education. Vigorous physical activity during a period of convalescence may prove detrimental to the health of the pupil.

16. Pupils should be classified for activity. Age, weight, organic power, strength, skill, interest, and structural and functional defects are some of the factors to be considered when classifying pupils for activity.

17. Achievement tests should be given to determine pupil improvement. Knowledge of the pupil's development should be used as the basis for modifying the pupil's program.

18. The health and physical education programs should be carried on under competent leadership. Teachers should be well prepared. Their training in the physical, biological, and social sciences should be extensive. In addition, they must know education in general, and have specific preparation in physical education activities and in the health and physical education sciences.

19. Only those teachers of health and physical education who represent the highest ideals in morals and personal character should be selected to teach health and physical education. Pupils develop character qualities thru physical education activities. Teaching thru example is more powerful than teaching thru precept.

20. Teachers of health and physical education should have teaching ability of a high order. The complexity of the problem of pupil differences and the infinite variety of problems connected with the many kinds of health and physical education activities require that the teacher have rare ability if he is to be successful.

21. Management of the health and physical education program should be in the hands of school authorities. Outside groups frequently gain control of some phases of the program. Many of the evils connected with the commercialization of athletics are due to non-school control of athletics.

22. Local and state supervision of health and physical education programs should be established and maintained. General and technical service is useful in advancing the program and assists teachers and administrators in making their work more effective.

23. Adequate facilities, equipment, and supplies should be available for the conduct of the health and physical education program. The school site should be level and large enough to accommodate the various types of ac-

tivities in the program. The number of different kinds of play areas required is related to the number of pupils to be accommodated. Courts and fields should be properly arranged and prepared, and boundary lines kept marked.

24. Indoor facilities should be provided for the health and physical education program. Exercise floors, health unit rooms, offices, dressing rooms, shower rooms, special rooms, a swimming pool, and lockers are needed in the secondary school.

25. The amount of equipment and supplies necessary for the health and physical education program depends on the nature of the activity and the number of pupils participating.

26. Facilities, equipment, and supplies should be safe to use. The playground area should be fenced; separate and well protected play areas should be arranged for small children; developmental types of playground equipment for elementary schools should be properly installed; and frequent inspection of all materials for safety should obtain.

27. There should be no discrimination in the provision of facilities, equipment, and supplies for the boys' and girls' health and physical education programs. Neither program should be favored to the exclusion or detriment of the other.

Department of Science Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION is an outgrowth of a State Department of Natural Science Teachers which was organized at a meeting of the Colorado State Teachers Association in 1894. See *Proceedings*, 1894: 951. It was first known as the Department of Natural Science Instruction.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Ellen Eddy Shaw, Curator of Elementary Instruction, Brooklyn Botanic Garden, 1000 Washington Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.; *Vicepresident*, Ira C. Davis, University High School, Madison, Wis.; *Secretary*, Mildred Fahy, Principal, Schneider School, Chicago, Ill.; *Treasurer*, Ralph C. Bedell, 3619 Wyandotte Street, Kansas City, Mo.

This Department meets once each year, in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1895: 951-958	1903: 847-895	1911: 939-992	1919: 289	1927: 583-597
1896: 937-967	1904: 843-896	1912: 1153-1193	1920: 305-308	1928: 569-589
1897: 916-958	1905: 781-825	1913: 695-716	1921: 663-666	1929: 559-577
1898: 959-984	1906: 719-720	1914: 721-773	1922: 1239-1265	1930: 529-542
1899: 1097-1117	1907: 951-957	1915: 995-1028	1923: 843-860	1931: 561-575
1900: 592-608	1908: 965-998	1916: 699-749	1924: 753-774	1932: 467-480
1901: 771-802	1909: 789-828	1917: 535-555	1925: 598-608	
1902: 759-789	1910: 949-967	1918: 295	1926: 625-636	

NATURE STUDY—FOUNDATION FOR WHAT?

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Science as an instrument of public-school education should impart to the individual those major values which science has contributed to the progress of the race, namely, skill in the use of scientific laws for the solution of life problems, ability to think in a scientific manner, and certain motivating desires, ideals, and attitudes. These major goals can only be accomplished if and when the energies of all the science teachers are concentrated upon them, because the time allotted to science is brief.

Nature study has never been very clear as to its objectives. It has been prone to adopt as major goals things that are but parts of a whole, parts that are quite irrelevant in themselves and only significant when taken in conjunction with the rest of the whole. If one reads the literature dealing with the aims of nature study he finds the most frequently mentioned aim to be "to teach children to observe." So nature study has often resulted, perhaps in many schools still results, in cluttering the minds of pupils with a lot of useless facts. Real observation is always and only one element in scientific thinking. It is a part of the whole job of problem solving. To try to teach observation by and for itself is like trying to train one leg of a horse to race when it is severed from the rest of the animal. One cannot conceive Pasteur or Faraday starting a day's work and saying to himself, "Now, this is my observation day."

Clem Thompson in his analysis of some eighty-four state and city courses of study in grade-school science (1920) found that the courses aimed chiefly at an acquaintance of pupils with the names and life habits of common animals and plants and with a few physical phenomena. Lois Mathis' recent analysis of the newer courses (1932) shows that they are concerned much more with acquainting pupils with those scientific ideas that have been significant in giving men an understanding and control of their physical and biological environment. This is a difference that indicates a move in the right direction. There is little evidence even in these late courses that nature study is trying to participate in establishing either desirable emotionalized standards or skill in scientific thinking. John Dewey calls this last objective the most important aim of science in the schools.

Nature study has been prone to set up its own objectives and formulate its own course of study with little regard to what science work came later in the school. The same may be said of general science, biology, chemistry, and physics. Each science has gone its own way and paid little attention to its predecessors or successors. We have, therefore, no generally recognized standards of accomplishment for the various grade levels in science. The supervisory officer demands that the pupil graduating from the grades shall have the ability to read, speak, and write simple English with some degree of facility, and he demands skill in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and

division of integers and fractions. But so far as I know, no school yet recognizes similarly definite outcomes of science instruction as essential to graduation from the grade school.

The science curriculum must be a unified whole, not, as it is largely at present, a series of disjointed incoherent fragments. It should be stated in terms of the skills, abilities, and attitudes to be achieved rather than in terms of the subjectmatter to be handled. It must be planned from the top down for one must know what the superstructure is to be before he can lay foundations.

Nature study, or for that matter, any science, will never come into its own as a potent factor contributing to the important outcomes of education until all science teachers cooperate to produce a unified science course with definite outcomes for each grade level, these outcomes so sequential that the early ones will be recognized as essential prerequisites to the later.

The new nature study course cannot be built by patching together selections from existing courses. Present courses are not the result of the survival of the fit. They are for the most part based on the whim or fancy of the individuals who wield the scissors and paste-brush to produce them.

Nor can we depend on the experts in the several fields of science to tell us what should go into the elementary science course. They are too far removed from childhood as a rule to be familiar with the psychology of grade pupils. They are, moreover, saturated with the subjectmatter and method of producer science while public-school pupils need consumer science.

The selection and organization of the course cannot be based on studies of children's interests. The studies thus far made in this field are absolutely contradictory in their results. They show, if anything, that children's interests in nature materials are a result of what they have been taught rather than an indication of what they should be taught.

The one feasible way to determine the knowledge content of the science curriculum is to go out into life and find out what science Mr. Everyman needs to solve the problems involving science that arise in his life, and make that the subjectmatter of the science instruction.

There are two possible ways of attacking this job. First, you may list all the problems of a scientific nature that arise in your community and teach pupils how to react to each, how to adjust a lawn mower, how to put in a new fuse when the electric lights go out, what to eat for each meal each day in the month, to plant orchard trees on a hill top rather than in the valley, to turn out the gas rather than blow it out. The list of such problematic situations is too long to make it possible to habituate pupils to the proper reactions, to even the more important ones. Herriott listed 576 in his community in the field of physics alone. Moreover, you have no assurance that the pupil will remain in his community. He likely will go where an entirely different set of adjustments must be made. And you may be quite sure that the problems of a scientific character that will confront him twenty or thirty years hence will be largely unlike those of the present day and generation. This first alternative seems therefore quite impracticable.

Second, pupils may be given a mastery of the most important principles of science, i. e., taught not only to understand the principles but to apply them to problems of the sort that arise in life. Principles are judged important in proportion as they are needed in actual life situations. The 576 things that Herriott found needed to be done in the field of physics in his community involve only a dozen principles. Principles are universally applicable both in time and place.

The more important principles have been fairly well determined in the order of importance by a number of objective studies in the fields of chemistry, physics, and biology. These principles become the more specific objectives of instruction under the major knowledge goal. Similarly the important elements and safeguards of scientific thinking and the more significant emotionalized stands to be achieved by science instruction must be listed as the specific objectives under these major goals.

Each of these specific objectives—each principle, for instance—must be analyzed in order to see what are the elements of the apperceptive mass needed to assure its mastery. To illustrate, the law of the conservation of energy has been found, by the objective studies, to be the most important principle of physics. It should be placed as low in grade instruction as possible in order that no pupil will leave school without a mastery of this law of greatest significance in this field. Miss Murdoch's experimental study shows it can be reasonably mastered at the eighth grade level but that many minor concepts needed as a basis of its understanding can be clarified in lower grades.

This law states that energy cannot be created or destroyed; it may be changed from one form to another, always in equivalent amounts. Now evidently before the law itself can be mastered pupils must know what is meant by energy, creation, destruction, and the forms of energy. The clarification is always based on sensory experiences. Pupils may fly kites to feel the force of moving air. They may drive nails with a hammer and feel how mechanical energy is changed to heat when they touch the hot nail heads. They may connect up a battery to a motor and see how electric energy is changed to energy of motion, or they may operate a hand dynamo to light a small electric light and experience that the faster they turn the dynamo the brighter the light glows.

Such experiences, interesting and significant at the grade level—third, fourth, or fifth perhaps—where they are introduced, are given pupils to clarify concepts needed to comprehend the law of the conservation of energy the mastery of which is to be attempted at the eighth grade. This accomplishes one of the specific objectives of the major goal of imparting to pupils that knowledge of science which is and has been of greatest significance to mankind. Thus and only thus can we make each bit of science instruction purposeful and make it fit into a unified science course that will accomplish the major goals we set out to reach.

Only as we have the knowledge of science which we possess in the form of principles can we use it to solve the problems we encounter—whether

they may be problems concerning which we have to do something in a practical way or problems we solve to satisfy our intellectual curiosity. I am traveling in the club car at the front of the train on the Michigan Central's "Wolverine." As the engine, running at high speed, scoops up water from the trough between the rails, great drops are thrown up onto the windows of the car. I notice that these do not run straight down the window pane but diagonally from the upper corner near the engine to the lower corner farther from the engine. I wonder why. I hunt around in my store of knowledge for some scientific principle that will apply to this problematic situation. At last I hit upon the law of composition of forces. Then I see that the drops are acted upon by gravity at the same time the window pane is slipping under them with the speed of the train. Can I calculate approximately the speed of the train from this diagram of the composition of forces, drawn by the drops on the window pane? Here I have a quantitative problem that whiles away the tedium of journey. If you will look back in your own experiences to those occasions when you have applied your science to the solution of a problem you will find that you have similarly made use of some principle you know.

Some of these important yet fairly simple principles can be mastered by pupils in the intermediate grades, others must be placed in later levels of the school. The nature study teacher, even in primary grades, can be clarifying concepts necessary to their understanding—concepts which are in themselves worthwhile to pupils of the lower grades.

Time will not permit outlining in detail the formulation of curriculum material and its appropriate grade placement to accomplish the other major goals of science teaching. I should like to have pupils, as a result of their public-school science, achieve such emotionalized standards as (1) a profound feeling of wonder, awe, and reverence for the magnitude and complexity of the universe in which we live; (2) a lively admiration for the self-sacrificing devotion of such men as Pasteur, Faraday, Kepler, Lavoisier, who have contributed to the welfare of mankind rather than devoting their energies to exploiting their fellows for their own selfish ends, and (3) an attitude of mind that impels the individual to consult experts in fields where his own knowledge is inadequate.

It is one of the main functions of science instruction to transform the immature, illogical thinking of the pupil who is swayed by fancy, whim and current unfounded beliefs to scientific thinking—to make him skillful in using the elements and safeguards of good reflective thought. The child can think quite as efficiently as the adult provided the problems with which he is faced deal with concrete situations. He is usually discouraged, however, in his efforts. He is spanked for taking the clock to pieces to see what makes it go or for cutting into his drum to see where the noise comes from altho he is using a perfectly good scientific method to satisfy his curiosity.

The author has given a test in the use of the elements and safeguards of scientific thinking to thousands of pupils in junior and senior high schools. The results show that pupils who have had much science are no more pro-

ficient than those who have had little or none. In other words, science as it is now taught neglects quite completely this important outcome.

The nature study teacher, then, should be giving pupils a mastery of some of the important yet simple principles of science even well down in the grades. He should be giving his pupils such experiences as will clarify the concepts needed as a basis of understanding other principles that will come at later school levels. He should begin the development of skill in problem solving or scientific thinking, at least set a good example of such even with kindergarteners, for youngsters early learn by imitation. He should lead pupils in those activities which will help to establish important emotionalized standards. In a word, his work is foundational. It must be part of a whole, not a disconnected fragment. While some of his work is preparatory to that which will come at later levels, it must also be significant in the life needs of pupils at the grade level where it is introduced.

A TECHNIC FOR HANDLING LARGE CLASSES

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The purpose of this paper is to describe a technic of teaching large general science classes and demonstrate the influence of class size on the results obtained when this technic of instruction is used. The results, in general, confirm other studies of class size which show that measurable student outcomes are not affected when the number of students in a class is increased from thirty-five to sixty.

The technic of instruction employed is called the work sheet procedure. The course was organized into units and each unit was taught in as nearly the same manner as its subjectmatter would permit. Each unit was introduced by a preview of about twenty minutes' length given orally by the teacher, the purpose of which was to give the students a general idea of the unit and to stimulate them to study. The oral preview was followed by the students reading the section in the text entitled "What You May Expect To Find in This Unit." The students then turned slowly thru the pages of the text which made up the main body of the unit to notice the main headings, problems, and illustrations. This process was intended to orient the student to the unit and in most cases consumed approximately one class hour.

As soon as a student had completed the above he was given the first page of the work sheet material for the unit. On each work sheet there was a mimeographed list of questions and problems to which the student wrote the answers in the space provided. As soon as the student had finished the first sheet, he turned it in and received the second, and so on until all of the work for the unit had been completed. At the end of each day the teacher marked all sheets that had been turned in, filed those that were satisfactory, and returned to the students those that contained errors. Each student then

corrected his errors and turned in the sheet again. This process was continued until all answers on the sheet were correct. All correct sheets were kept by the teacher. In marking the errors the teacher used a check mark to indicate the incorrect answer if only a minor error had been made. If the answer showed that the student had made a serious mistake in thinking, suggestions were written on the margin of the sheet. In those cases where it seemed advisable for the teacher to give the student individual assistance, a note to that effect was made on the paper, and the following day the student would receive the needed assistance during the regular class hour. The class hour was spent by the students in working out their work sheets and in conference with the teacher regarding any portion of the work which was not clear to them. These conferences were usually with only one student at a time, but where several students were having the same difficulty a conference was held with those students in one group. In no case did the teacher give the exact answer required by any question on the work sheets, but did give the necessary information and explanation to enable the students to work out the required answer provided such additional help was necessary.

All laboratory work was by teacher demonstration and was performed at a time best suited to the majority of the class. Laboratory equipment was left on the demonstration table for two or three days after the demonstration to permit students to examine it or to repeat the demonstration if necessary.

There was no time limit set for the solution of any one work sheet, but there was a time limit set for the completion of the entire unit. Since the work sheet material was divided into three levels of achievement, it was necessary for the student to roughly budget his time if he expected to reach his goal. On the date set for the close of the unit, a comprehensive objective examination over the material was given. The results of this examination were the principal factor in determining marks.

It is essential that the work sheet material be properly constructed if this technic is to be successful. In this instance all such material was written by the teacher. The first step in constructing the work sheets for a given unit was to make a list of the important facts and principles which were considered as desirable outcomes of the unit. These were then divided into three groups according to the teacher's opinion as to the difficulty and the importance of each fact or principle. Those that were considered as essential to the course and within the comprehension of the majority of the students were placed in the M group. Those considered next most difficult were placed in the S group, and those most difficult and requiring the broadest scope of information were placed in the E group. For each fact or principle, exercises or problems were devised which required the use of the given fact or principle for their solution. These exercises or problems were then divided into the above mentioned groups. In several instances exercises were inserted in the S and E groups which covered the same principle as an exercise in the M group, but such exercises in the more advanced groups always involved a broader application of the given principle than the exercise used in the M group. The three levels, or groups, of exercises, thus, were determined on the basis of

minimum essentials, difficulty, and extent of application of the principle involved.

The construction of the exercises, in every case possible, was done in such a way that the student would be required to study the material in the text and interpret it for the answer to the exercise. That is, in nearly all cases, the student could not answer an exercise by merely finding a word or phrase in the text and copying it on the work sheet. The exercises were arranged to follow the text used, *General Science for Today* by Watkins and Bedell (Macmillan). At the conclusion of the M group of exercises each student was required to make an outline of the subjectmatter in the unit. In the S and E groups the student was required to do a certain amount of outside reading from books related to the unit. A list of books available in the school library was given to each student for each unit. If the student finished his work sheet material ahead of time, he was permitted to go to the library during class hour to do this reading. The library was available to any student at any hour in the day during which he had a study hall or at any time after school hours. The students were permitted to do projects connected with the unit. At the end of the unit, those students who had done outside reading reported orally to the entire class, and those who had done projects presented them to the class. This usually required from one to two days of time, after which the unit examination was given.

The examinations were all of the objective type, either true-false or multiple choice. In constructing them care was taken to devise questions on each of the facts and principles developed in the unit. As far as possible the questions were worded in such a way as to require thinking on the part of the student instead of mere memory. This was done by setting science situations and requiring the student to react to interpretations or causes which might or might not be the correct ones. All students took the same examinations.

To determine the effect of class size on the efficiency of instruction by the above technic one class with an enrolment of 61 was compared with two smaller classes, each of which had an enrolment of 38. The average daily attendance of the large class was 57.8 while that for the two small classes was 35.2 and 36.5. All classes were taught by the above method and by the same teacher. The classes consisted of boys and girls regularly enrolled for general science in Southwest High School, Kansas City, Missouri.

Students in the large, or experimental, class were paired with students from the small, or control, classes on the basis of ability rating, chronological age, and results from the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, the Haggerty Reading Test, and the Kansas City General Science Test. Initial and final tests were given to permit the measurement of gains. For either gains in knowledge or scores on final tests, the results show no statistically significant differences between the large and small groups.

The author believes that a highly trained teacher with a capable assistant could handle five classes of approximately sixty each without undue strain to either teacher or assistant.

NATURAL SCIENCE IN THE RURAL SCHOOLS

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By definition natural science is organized knowledge concerning the physical universe. The elementary study of natural science may therefore include many traditional elementary-school subjects such as physiology, hygiene, nature study, agriculture, and most phases of geography. For the purposes of this presentation this inclusive interpretation of elementary science will be employed.

The rural-school field presents an excellent opportunity for the introduction of a unified course in elementary science. It is exceedingly unfortunate that in the midst of environment which lends itself most effectively to the practical study of this subject, so little of it is found. In spite of the advance of consolidation, tens of thousands of small rural schools still exist and will be with us for many decades yet to come. If one rural school per day were to be abandoned, twenty-eight years will have elapsed before the last rural school in the state of Illinois will have disappeared. In the midst of scientific educational contributions to the advancement of other institutions are school people going to continue to neglect the little rural school? We trust not.

Modern rural-school organization and procedure will yield very nicely to the introduction and use of a unified course in natural science. The complicated organization (or lack of organization) in the old-time rural school has been alleviated by the alternation and grouping of subjects, and more recently by the introduction of an adaptation of the individualized instruction system. Both of these plans, by the way, are largely the contribution of the state of Illinois, and the late Mr. U. J. Hoffman, assistant state superintendent of schools, a true friend of the rural school.

In spite of the continued improvement in rural-school practise there is need of greater consolidation of subjects with resultant effects in the increase of the length of the study periods and more consistent and effective effort generally. Subject unions could be effected under the headings of English, which may include reading, composition, spelling, language or grammar; social sciences, which may include history, civics, and economics, as per Dr. Rugg's plan; and certainly natural science which may include the subjects mentioned heretofore.

Individualized instruction in rural schools provides a technic which allows an individual, after mastering the minimum essentials of an assignment by way of vertical advancement, to expand as far horizontally in his unit of study as his time and ability will permit. The slow pupil will master the essentials only, while the more brilliant pupils are released to work upon related projects, experiments, notebooks, workbooks, encyclopedic and library study, and socialized activities. The new program of rural-school instruction involves on occasion the use of supervised or directed study, socialized

recitation, group and individual activities and, in fact, affords the opportunity for the employment of most of the modern teaching devices and methods.

How may a unified course of natural science study best serve the modern rural school? It should follow closely the recommendations of your Department of Science Instruction and those of the Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, as well as scientific guides which may be produced later.

The Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education suggests the following as points of study about which an elementary science course should be centered: the universe, the earth, the earth's atmosphere, life, conditions essential to life, variety of life, the physical environment of life, adaptations of life, interdependence of life, health, chemical and physical changes, light, electricity and magnetism, and inventions in the home and in industry. For rural-school purposes this list should be extended, where necessary, to include all subjects now presented in geography, physiology, hygiene, agriculture and nature study.

The elementary course in natural science in rural schools should take cognizance of the many natural opportunities for practical observation and study presented in rural environment. The greatest laboratory available, nature itself, is vibrantly present at all times. It should be used, respected, and loved.

The natural science materials which are to be presented must be scientifically graded, vocabularily tested, and centered about the subjects of greatest natural interest to the pupils of the respective grades and ages. Too often are these items neglected in the production of courses of study because those who produce them are professionally interested in the content and not so well versed in the methods of presenting it.

The elementary science course of study should capitalize the use of modern teaching devices, particularly the workbook and other work-type material, simple experimentation, project making, and unit study.

The material must be attractively organized and presented, rather than formal and fearful as judged by the child. It, of course, must develop the desire to know more and more about the marvelous order and activity of things about us, rather than to burden the child with an antipathy toward scientific study, engendered by unwise pedagogy. The organization and method employed must have all the naturalness that a science of nature in itself reveals.

Finally, the course of study in elementary natural science must impart a respect for the beauty, the orderliness, the exactitude, and the truth of creation, thereby constituting a tremendous force for moral and cultural good.

Thousands of rural schools of America will gladly receive and use a course of study in elementary science which course respects modern rural-school organization and teaching technic and which in a natural way employs the natural advantages of a rural setting.

Department of Secondary Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION was established in 1886. It lapsed temporarily in 1924. In 1931 it was revived by the Delegate Assembly of the National Education Association at its annual convention in Los Angeles.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Ernest D. Lewis, Room 1901, 130 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.; *Vicepresident*, Frank E. Barr, Balboa High School, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary*, Ann E. Ryder, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, N. J.; *Treasurer*, George M. Strong, East High School, Columbus, Ohio; *Regional Directors*: Grace M. Davis, Modesto High School, Modesto, Calif.; Asa E. Foster, Starling Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio; Robert W. House, Salem High School, Salem, Va.; Grace Kenehan, Chester S. Morey Junior High School, Denver, Colo.; Augustus Ludwig, Pershing Junior High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

This Department meets once a year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of the Department, its revival, and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1887: 393-442	1895: 579-635	1903: 429-486	1911: 555-657	1919: 195-204
1888: 401-433	1896: 557-619	1904: 473-536	1912: 663-765	1920: 209-230
1889: 497-533	1897: 644-699	1905: 423-479	1913: 469-499	1921: 667-678
1890: 613-655	1898: 664-700	1906: 633-636	1914: 445-488	1922: 1267-1293
1891: 615-687	1899: 601-817	1907: 521-710	1915: 723-753	1923: 861-880
1892: 333-373	1900: 428-453	1908: 577-667	1916: 517-574	1924: 775-802
1893: 177-242	1901: 565-604	1909: 479-522	1917: 253-284	1932: 481-492
1894: 743-794	1902: 455-492	1910: 443-533	1918: 177-189	

MATHEMATICS IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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In a survey of instruction in mathematics, as a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education completed in 1932, outstanding practises were sought thru analysis of more than a hundred courses of study and thru personal visitation to selected schools.

In all particulars, junior high-school courses were constructed with more care than were those of senior high school: in the case of objectives, the junior high school emphasized the more practical, while the senior high school emphasized disciplinary and cultural values; newer and richer materials appear in junior high-school courses, embodying algebra and intuitive geometry and social and economic uses of arithmetic, while those of senior high school remain largely traditional; interest of junior high-school pupils is sought thru the application of mathematics to the needs of mankind thru the ages and thru the use of practical problems, while in senior high school college preparation largely dominates. In junior high school the recommendations of the National Committee on Reorganization, except with respect to the development of functional thinking and emphasis on college preparation in grade nine have been carefully followed. A few senior high schools are pointing the way to better correlation and more practical emphasis on materials of instruction.

Courses of study are for the most part of a formal nature. What may be indicative of future trends is the attempt in some centers to concentrate on revealed weaknesses and to give more attention to general orientation, individual differences, and measurement of results.

THE CHANGING CURRICULUM IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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The changes in the secondary-school curriculum reported are those disclosed in a number of investigations made in connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education. These investigations differ from most studies of trends by ascertaining the changes in the programs in identical groups of schools at two different periods, one set of programs for each group of schools being those in use in 1930 and the other the programs in use at some earlier period.

Trends were studied for both junior and senior high schools. In junior high schools there has been a rapid increase in the proportion of work in non-academic subjects somewhat at the expense of academic subjects. The only academic group experiencing a notable gain was the social studies,

whereas the other increments were in the fine and practical arts, and physical education. In addition, increased amounts of time were being devoted to what may be called the "social-integrative activities," such as homeroom activities, clubs, and activities in the assembly or auditorium. Another marked trend is in the disappearance of specialized aspects of subjects, such as "grammar," "composition," "reading," "spelling," and the emergence in their place of more general titles like "English." This trend appears in several subject fields. The changes are in line with the acknowledged special purposes of the junior high school.

At the senior high-school level a chief change is in the addition of many new courses, the additions affecting all subject groups, but science, mathematics, and foreign language less than others. The trend in required work at this level is away from mathematics and foreign language and toward English, the social studies, and physical education. The displacement of specialized by general courses has progressed more slowly than at the junior high-school level. An investigation of the work actually taken by graduates while in high school shows a striking shift away from foreign language and mathematics and toward English, the social studies, and the non-academic subjects.

For the most part the shifts at both levels are in the direction of the recommendations of those who have been urging curriculum reform. These persons are primarily impatient at the rate of change.

ENGLISH IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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What are the major trends concerning English revealed by the National Survey of Secondary Education?

First, there has been a general reduction of time devoted to English as a subject in the junior high-school years.

Second, certain trends in the teaching of composition stand out clearly. Analysis of aims from 156 courses shows large emphasis upon the fundamentals of expression and a correspondingly low place accorded to elements of style, forms of discourse, and the technical study of rhetorical principles.

Third, there is a tendency to place relatively little stress upon oral English and letter-writing in comparison with their importance in everyday life. The findings are so contrary to the recommendations of experts as well as to the results of scientific investigations into curriculum problems that they would seem to merit the serious concern of those engaged in curriculum revision. There is evidence, however, that when oral composition is engaged in, the activities are nearer life situations than are the corresponding activities of written composition.

A fourth tendency appearing in certain recent courses of study is the reorganization of composition about functional centers like those suggested by the investigations of Dr. Roy I. Johnson and the Clapp committee of the National Council. The proposed centers are seven in number: (1) conversation and discussion; (2) instructions, directions, and explanations; (3) announcements, reports, and speeches; (4) story-telling, (5) writing explanations, stories, and poems; (6) letter-writing; and (7) word study and spelling.

The final trend in the teaching of composition concerns the program of study in grammar. The 156 courses examined are unanimous in their purpose to teach that amount of grammar which is necessary to function in correct speech and writing. No other aims are mentioned with the exception of grammar as an aid to literary interpretation, which occurs in three courses out of the 156. In spite of this agreement upon a functional content in grammar, the number of topics listed for study varies from 45 to 149. Once more we are forcibly reminded of the fact that *nobody knows* what grammar is functional and what is not. Clearly one of the first steps in any program of curriculum making in English is the scientific investigation of this problem thru controlled experimentation in the classroom.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Instruction in the modern foreign languages is at present in a transition stage. Because of the lack of authoritative objective data, courses of study have been organized until very recently almost wholly on the basis of subjective opinion and an analysis of the processes of language learning and teaching, with little experimental support. Steps have been taken by the Modern Foreign Language Study to put the teaching of modern languages on a scientific basis. The Committee on Investigation has set forth the following guiding principles for the organization of a rational modern-language program. The objectives proposed for any course must take into account the realities of the situation, such as the time at the disposal of the majority of the pupils, their age, ability, knowledge, and interests; the linguistic and personal equipment of the teacher; and all pertinent administrative conditions. The content of the course is to be chosen and organized with conscious reference to the aims and is to consist of learning activities as nearly like the proposed outcomes as the classroom situation will allow. The criterion for the selection of subjectmatter and classroom procedure is objective evidence that these are the materials and activities best adapted to the attainment of the proposed aims within the allotted time and under the conditions that prevail in the classroom. Objective standards of achievement are to be set up based upon actual classroom performance.

Within the limited time at its disposal, the Committee on Investigation for the Study was unable to complete or even to initiate research or experimentation upon all of the problems that need solution. The Committee's proposed list of problems for investigation and research includes over a hundred items.

The foreign language situation in the junior high school is still in a chaotic state. Courses are offered in modern languages, in Latin, and in a considerable number of schools, in general language, and may be found to begin in every term except the second semester of the ninth grade.

Observation of selected classes in foreign language in the junior high school indicates that the best teachers, at least, have been eminently successful in shaping course content and in devising pupil activities suited to the early adolescent. The problem of proper articulation of the work of the junior high school in foreign language with continuation courses in the senior high school remains, however, a perplexing one. Nor is a decisive answer available to the question of the value of the earlier beginning.

The general language course offers a possible solution to the problem of articulation, while serving also to some degree as an exploratory course in foreign language and providing general information in itself. The aims, content, and values of the course in general language, however, need to be more sharply defined on the basis of objective data derived from careful experimentation.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

CHARLES H. HANDSCHIN, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF
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All are agreed that reading, real reading, is the prime aim. There is a problem for each teacher to solve. It is this. I must teach a reading knowledge in two to four years in high school, or two years in college. How much time can I put on speaking and grammar and still achieve the former? Every teacher solves this problem for himself, according to his lights and circumstances; that is, every teacher who has freedom.

Modern language teachers are doing better than some years ago. More is being read thruout; less stress is being laid on speaking. Segregation into good and poor sections with no stress on speaking for the poor sections is coming in college and must come in high school. If we wish to guarantee a reading knowledge in two years these two points must be taken advantage of to the full. But it must not mean merely old-style translation. A passable pronunciation must be taught and made habitual the opening week or weeks. Other devices are being and must be used instead of mere translation. Besides, we have come to make use of two kinds of reading—intensive and extensive.

Modern language teaching has been very creditable for many years in spite of what many may suppose as I shall show from the statistics of the College Entrance Examination Board. This poor opinion of modern language teaching on the part of many is due to two things: First, the misconception that since we were advocating a direct method, the public expected our students to be able to speak the language taught, and since we paid considerable attention to speaking, reading received less attention and so suffered. Second, the public expected too much. A speaking knowledge cannot be taught in two years nor even a reading knowledge in two years in high school, unless under exceptional circumstances. But modern language has been as well taught as any other subject and better than many, according to statistics of the College Entrance Examination Board, "It has, for the last twenty-five years, stood consistently well above the average (roughly 800,000 papers enter into the tabulation) which is true of no other subject except Greek. This, however, with 15,000 papers is not comparable to modern languages with 140,000 papers which means, as we know, that Greek classes were much smaller."

I believe the educationists who have been critical of modern language instruction will be willing to grant this contention if we can guarantee a good reading knowledge after two years in high school. We need not attain any speaking knowledge in high school and very little in college to satisfy this sort of opposition. I believe, however, it will be better for modern language to have it taught in the senior high school than in the junior, for in the senior high school we shall have a better chance of achieving a reading ability in worthwhile material.

As a contribution to the question mentioned above the speaker proposes a new philosophy of modern language teaching. The present philosophies are (1) diagnostic (help after the damage is done); (2) teaching pattern forms in the hope that they may be useful in the future. The new proposal is to create a classroom situation in which the student desires to express himself—in English in poor sections, in the foreign language in good sections. A new technic of creating such a situation is reported concretely by records of actual classroom discussions.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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A teacher of the social studies in Atlantis, possessed of an independent income, decided to take a leave of absence from his activities and visit foreign countries to make a firsthand investigation of instruction in his field of major interest. Among the countries visited, he became so interested in what seemed to him to be certain anomalies in social-studies situations in the

secondary schools of the United States that he decided to make a more intensive investigation of courses of study, classroom situations, and the relation of instruction in these subjects to typical environmental situations in American life today.

While the youth of Europe are marching under the banners of Stalin, Mussolini, and Hitler, with compasses, charts, points of reference, and an enthusiasm for the journey, regardless of uncertainties as to the destination, our youth, according to this observer, are floundering in confusion, trying without adequate points of reference or appealing symbols, to find their uncertain way thru the ever-widening area between American ideals or fictions and realities. That our youth, confused by the maze of contradictions between pretenses and realities, try to gain their bearings amidst the multiplicity of appeals of institutions and entrenched groups, retraces its steps, and then advances boldly in an uncertain direction, is not surprising to the observer, because our youth, with many misgivings and reservations, are merely imitating the adult population to a greater or less extent in their desire for approval and prestige. Adult groups and institutions, according to our critically-minded observer, are much more concerned with the induction of youth into conventional stereotypes than with provisions for their guidance thru the maze of institutional arrangements towards patterns of conduct that will eventuate into the good life for them.

After considerable reflection upon the entire situation in the teaching of the social studies in our country, he finally concluded that when the Americans as a people—not merely 10 or 20 percent of them—shall begin to displace wishful thinking and sentimentalism by logical and fearless thinking and other evidence of intellectual poise and maturity, when American educators shall be governed by basic ideas rather than slogans in their thinking about the contributions which the social studies may legitimately be expected to make to the social education of youth, when they shall apprehend the basic purposes in the teaching of the social studies as the search for and comprehension of ideas in ever-widening and many-sided relationships rather than chasing phantom dreams about reforming contemporary society by magic formulas and platitudes, when they shall emphasize instruction in the inalienable rights, and their implications, possessed by citizens rather than merely stress conformity to platitudes and stereotypes, a great improvement in the quality of instruction in the social studies may reasonably be expected. Then, he presumed, youth might have an even chance to cope with social situations of all kinds with the aid of trained minds, flexible powers of thought, a more intelligent conception of citizenship, and an alertness in detecting superstitions, propaganda, and fallacies in reasoning imposed upon them by dominant groups and institutions; in short, he predicted that intelligence and greater maturity in thought and responsibility in action might then be expected to eventuate into the good life for youth, and that they might be expected to use these attributes in pioneering toward a better social order.

MUSIC IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Less than one hundred years ago Lowell Mason introduced music into the public elementary schools of Boston. Somewhat later, as the high school became an agency in the educational process of the United States it gradually found recognition as a part of secondary education. Since its inception in the school program, music has from time to time undergone various changes in aims, content of the course of study and methods of teaching. It has, however, attained virility as a school subject only within the past few years—years which have witnessed its expansion from compulsory chorus meeting once or twice a week without credit to credited offerings in theory, history, appreciation, instrumental and vocal music.

Altho showing a phenomenal development in the character and extent of its offerings since the early years of this century, music as yet does not hold a large share of time in the program of the majority of schools. Yet, despite its place on the schedule and the confusion which sometimes attends its administration, according to the *Biennial Survey of Secondary Education*, 1926-28, over 26 percent of the students in high schools reporting studies were registered in some form of music instruction—more than in drawing and art, home economics, Latin, French, German, Spanish, geometry, physics, chemistry, shorthand, and typewriting. In 1930 the quinquennial report of secondary schools approved by the North Central Association showed that in the schools represented more than 38 percent of the students included some form of music in their secondary training.

It must be admitted that at the present time the problems of educators are multiplied by the current economic recession which has brought about a "fad and frill" crusade, a movement not new, however, in the educational world. Probably music is the oldest of the educational fads for the term was applied to it at its introduction into the school system many years ago. Altho not always wisely taught and administered, it has without doubt justified itself as an educational tool. Whatever its faults in the school system may be, they are not inherent in the subject itself. Thruout the ages it has proved to be one of the most useful of social cements and a healthy outlet for the emotions. Certainly teaching boys and girls to recognize the difference between good music and poor music and to prefer the good is an indubitable contribution to their lives as civilized people and to the national standards and ideals. The present crisis will not be in vain if it serves to arouse in teachers of music a desire to correct defects now apparent in the instruction of their subject and causes them to reconstruct their courses so as to meet the challenge of a social and economic organism obviously now undergoing change.

MUSIC AND ART IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Our average presentday classroom practises differ little, in my observation, from those of ten or twenty-five years ago, except that in general they are more chaotic, less disciplined, less directed, more theoretical, more technical, more tricky, less realistic, less honest. We are busy with:

1. Making designs for things, posters, textiles, objects of art
2. Learning design principles
3. Learning facts about art works and artists
4. Learning short-cut, fool-proof methods to get design and composition via dynamic symmetry
5. Expressing ourselves in the latest French manner or according to the style of the best selling American magazine illustrator or commercial artist.

Skill must come last, expression, first. By expression, I do not mean the chaotic, modern arty stuff there is no excuse for. I mean those things that honest children do when fear of media is removed, that represents themselves, their kind of vision, their interpretation of their world. Abstractions are not natural or interesting to many young adolescents. They do not express themselves in or by abstract relationships in art unless especially influenced to do so. The natural thing for them is the concrete and the dramatic and the personal. Therefore, their art expressions should be allowed to be these things.

Expression, as an educational goal, means the freeing of man, the returning to him of the use of his natural equipment of eye, voice, and movement that modern civilization robs him of. If we find art has a particular function in this process of developing expression capacity, and we actually use it to this end, then we do not have to go further to justify its place in our curriculum. The trouble will be found then to be with the rest of the curriculum.

Unless it gives, not only thru art classes, but thru all the subjectmatter studies, as great an opportunity to expression of individual reaction as it does to the acquisition of facts, it will keep on producing another generation of adults such as have produced our present crisis, unconscious of their real selves, of their social environment, acquisitive to the last degree, to get something out of every source from every authority other than the authority of their own courageous individual reaction, their own personal response.

Our fundamental educational basis must be on the psychological needs of man as an individual and the function of the particular nature of art work in relation to this need. It is an old idea, but we art teachers seem to have lost sight of it in the making of organized courses of study if, indeed, it ever was used as the primary consideration in art teaching in secondary schools. We need to do a lot more clear thinking before we can be sufficiently convincing even to the thinking public that art is a fundamental educational tool.

COMMERCIAL AND VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Comparison of the number of different courses offered in commercial and vocational lines by secondary schools today with similar data for about eight years ago, shows a greatly increased diversification and specialization. In commercial work more than twice as many differently named courses are now found as were listed by Counts in his study of the senior high-school curriculum. Among the most commonly offered subjects in the commercial field are bookkeeping, business English, business management or business organization, commercial arithmetic, geography, and law, general business training, journalism, machine calculation, office practise, retail distribution, salesmanship, shorthand, and typewriting. It is interesting to find that the comprehensive high school offers on the average, at least as great a variety of commercial subjects as the high school of commerce. The tendency is for the former to offer a greater variety of subjects whereas the latter provides greater opportunity for specialization.

The contrast in industrial arts is even greater. In 1924, Counts reported that approximately two-thirds of all the time devoted to this type of work in the schools included in his study was devoted to the two subjects of mechanical drawing and manual training. Today auto mechanics, carpentry, clothing construction, electricity, machine shop, millinery, printing, sheet-metal work, bench and mill work are commonly offered in many general high schools. Of course, not all schools offer all those mentioned. Some schools, however, offer all these and more. The amount of work offered in each subject varies widely, being in some cases hardly more than a smattering, perhaps a half unit of work, the class meeting less than five periods a week, to rather intensive specialization for one or two and even three or four years. The greatest opportunity for specialization is found in the so-called specialized schools. This is true for commercial work in high schools of commerce and for industrial training in technical high schools and trade schools. The exception to this statement is the large cosmopolitan or comprehensive high school where a program of studies is offered that is very broad and which sometimes provides opportunity for considerable specialization as well.

Vocational training on the secondary level is broadening its scope and also increasing the opportunities for specialization. One is tempted to suspect, however, that except for commercial training in commercial and comprehensive high schools, and trade training in trade schools, what we offer as vocational training in most secondary schools is mostly bait for holding the reluctant or unwilling in school and essentially play-work rather than serious vocational training. The firsthand observation of all types of secondary schools substantiates this viewpoint. On the other hand, it may not be the training that is at fault, but the pupil. Many get into an occupation without specific training for it while others with such training fail to get in.

VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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A little over two years ago the New York City Board of Education appointed a Vocational Survey Committee to survey the vocational opportunities in New York City and, on the basis of its findings, to formulate a comprehensive program of vocational education. These findings are printed in a report called *General Recommendations on Vocational Education and Guidance in New York City*. They indicate how the curriculum ought to be changed, in which institutions it should be carried out, and the kind of teachers and supervisors who should be responsible for its administration.

The principal recommendations were:

1. That vocational education is a phase of secondary education, and the boys and girls in industrial high, continuation, and other vocational schools, are entitled to teachers, buildings, equipment, and all other facilities consistent with their needs and exactly the same high quality as that in the best high schools.

2. That in connection with the planning of every vocational school building there be organized for a centralized school embracing one trade or a related group of trades, a strong advisory committee of employers and employes; and for a general neighborhood school, that is, a vocational high school, an advisory committee or representatives of local organizations of employers, employes, parents, and other civic groups.

3. That the board of education organize two types of schools and develop to the full extent of its potentialities an existing third type, namely: (1) a limited number of central special schools, each of them housing all students taking instruction in one trade or group of related trades (full-time, part-time, apprentice, and evening), (2) regional general schools (vocational high schools) the main function of which shall be continued vocational guidance thru try-out and social science courses for all students beyond the junior high-school level and of all ages beyond fifteen, with short unit training courses in those vocations not covered in central schools; and (3) junior high schools in every neighborhood which shall provide try-out and occupational information courses for all students up to the age of fifteen and for retarded pupils up to the age of sixteen.

COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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Our government has gone into business. It will affect everyone in our jobs, our pocketbooks, and our living. Education for economic citizenship is the need of the hour. Education for businesslike living is the only thing

that can pull this country of ours out of the mire of depression and out of the bog of economic illiteracy.

Closing schools, pleading school administrators, frantic teachers, bad business, unsocial industrialism, questionable banking—all are reflections of economic illiteracy. For these many centuries, education has been warring against all kinds of illiteracy except the kind that is closest to the happiness and the stomachs of all people. It is simply unthinkable—this persistent neglect of general business information for all persons!

When schools and communities get into business or financial difficulties, we shout in desperation for people to help. We even try to talk business to our public but we have seen to it that our public schools have given education in every field and area except education for businesslike living. No wonder that we are in trouble. Where have people been able to get some idea of what business is all about and how it affects them? How are we going to expect sympathetic and enthusiastic cooperation in the pending economic recovery acts from people who do not have the foundations of elementary business undertaking?

It is a fundamental principle that people are afraid of and usually stand against that which they do not understand. Now if you are going to stand by while the federal Congress passes recovery acts that reach down into your pockets, your business, your hours of work and your jobs, then you ought to provide some means of educating people for whom you provide such legislation.

Commercial education in the changing curriculum of the high school has been pleading for the past three years for school administration to do something about education for economic citizenship—for general business information. If the foundational business information course is not good and adequate and sound, how can the super-structure—the commercial sciences in the eleventh and twelfth grades be sound and worthy and adequate?

Education for the consumer is in the making. Young people are going to get economic information from the schools or elsewhere. It certainly would be much better to provide in the schools a basis for economic guidance rather than allow events to shape themselves by a strictly academic and negative attitude. The problem of education for economic citizenship is on our front door step. The issue cannot be dodged.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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During the past ten years, no subject has progressed more rapidly in the curriculum of secondary education than that of health and physical education. Some of the outstanding developments are:

1. The health service program of schools is a combined responsibility of home, community, and school.

2. The health service work within the school is not a medical, but an educational problem, hence it comes under the general supervision of the educational administrators—superintendents and principals.

3. Health education—instruction in hygiene or healthful living—is not concerned with old-fashioned anatomy and physiology, but with wholesome living. There have been changes in the content of health education texts. We are not concerned with the knowledge of subjectmatter so much as with healthful living thru right habits and wholesome attitudes.

4. There are better health courses of study that are graded and based upon individual needs and follow modern curriculum-making procedures.

5. There has been a vast improvement in the program of physical education activities. These programs are no longer concerned with exercise, the building of muscles, or with the coaching of athletes. Physical education is now planned to give a well-rounded program of games, sports, athletics, aquatics, rhythms, gymnastics, graded and based upon individual needs. It is very much concerned with outcomes. Its objectives are health, physical fitness, and neuro-muscular coordination, development of play habits for the wise use of leisure time, sports for sportsmanship—hence character training and education not of, but education thru, physical activities.

There is a marked growth in the development of intramural sports. Mass participation is being preferred to varsity championship tournaments. The ideal—a game for every boy and girl and every boy and girl in a game—is rapidly becoming a reality. Educational athletics rather than spectator athletics is rapidly growing in favor.

RELATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS TO HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

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STORRS, CONN.

One of the viewpoints of this paper is that, in line with the reorganization of education in the United States, the concept that there are distinct units of secondary and higher education which need to be articulated should give way as rapidly as possible to a concept which views these units as integral parts of a single educational experience. Not all pupils will reach the same stages in this experience, but all should be privileged to go as far as their capacities will permit. If the junior high school and the junior college are properly “isthmian” in their function, then education is properly a single mainland, and the dark rivers which used to separate the units, and which become the educational valley of death to many young people, should be eliminated from our system.

Another concept is that the subjectmatter offerings and requirements of secondary schools and higher institutions should be modified in the light of their known direct relationships, or lack of it, to the offering above or below. This is not set down in conflict with the excellent principle that the learn-

ing materials of the school should fit the present life and needs of the learners. In fact, if all the subjects required at present which are not related directly to success on either the upper or lower level were eliminated from the programs of studies, ample opportunity would exist for schools to enrich their offerings to suit the diversified needs of the learners and of the communities in which the schools are located. It is generally admitted that such a concept as the one just stated would cut out at least some of the traditional subjects.

The third concept is that along with the elimination of the barriers that have existed at the junctions of the educational units there must be developed an effective system of guidance which gets pupils into schools appropriate to their abilities and interests and which tends to bring about the discontinuance, with the success feeling, of the educational experience at the close of an appropriate level of study. Whatever the plan of guidance developed to bring about such an adjustment of pupils, it is clear that it must be a cooperative enterprise, not thought of as terminating at any particular junction of units but continuing uninterrupted as long as the educational experience continues.

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE HIGH SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE

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There is a deep-seated conviction among many teachers that the one-time dominance of the college over the secondary school, inherent in the original nature and purpose of both, is a lingering handicap to complete efficiency. True, the dictatorship of the university has yielded slowly to the democratic pressure of increasing numbers and changing values in education. Accrediting agencies have gradually responded to the demand for modified entrance requirements. The higher institutions show a growing generosity in the consideration of recommendations and the interpretation of credits. Selective processes of securing enrolment have become steadily less selective. Despite these significant signs of greater latitude, however, the university still exerts a determining and often a deterring influence over the organization, the curriculum, and, most of all, the attitude of the teacher in the secondary school. Thus the high school of today retains the traditional organization borrowed in its infancy from higher institutions. Its curriculum, expanded to include vocational and technical training, and enriched by a wide range of cultural extras still echoes the traditional conviction that the real business of the secondary school is to lay a firm foundation for a superstructure of higher education, and that the training provided for those preparing for college is the best for those not going to college. The average high-school teacher, with this academic background and aspirations, is loath to admit that college is not the *summum bonum* of all desirable development. He finds it difficult to reconcile himself to what he terms lowering the standards, and what

really is facing the situation honestly and intelligently, and dealing with it effectively.

Mass education, thrust upon the secondary school without adequate provision, confronts the high school with a twofold obligation: to give to the few, who are able and eager to profit by further academic training, the best possible preparation; and to give to the many, who have neither the desire nor the capacity for higher education, but are equally worthy of development, the fullest possible development. We must be honest enough to admit that all pupils are not educable to the same degree or by the same means; that the academic or bookminded type is not the only one to render valuable service to society; and that each type is deserving of the development of which he is capable both in measure and in kind. We must be willing to segregate students according to their aptitudes and interests.

The colleges and universities have not escaped the inroads of mass education which has multiplied and intensified the problems of the secondary school, and offered a new challenge to every unit in our educational system. In the frank recognition, by the school, the college, and the university, of the fact that there are fundamentally different types of students, with different capacities for education, but all worthy of the training of which they are capable, lies the source of greater power and broader service. The secondary school must dedicate itself to a thoro investigation of its facilities, its possibilities, and its responsibilities, and whatever rebirth is necessary for increased effectiveness. The colleges and universities must be prepared to lead with growing generosity and wiser guidance in this period of unprecedented changes and unparalleled demands.

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE COLLEGE AND PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

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UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

One of the most commonly used criteria for admission of students to college is conformity of credits offered to a specified curriculum pattern. May I call your attention to the results of two recent studies of this question?

The study by Holzinger using records of approximately 600 students who were graduated during the four-year period from 1926-27 to 1929-30 and for whom scores on the psychological examination of the American Council on Education were available, leads one to the conclusion that, when intelligence is taken into account, high-school and junior-college preparation in any of the standard academic subjects here studied is about equally good preparation for later college work.

Douglas has made a study of 305 members of the 1930 class in the University of Oregon, all of whom were in residence for five consecutive terms. Students presenting two units of credit in foreign language did no better on the average in college than students who presented no units in that field. No

effective threshold to bar poor students may be set at less than five units of foreign language. Setting such a threshold at any number of units in foreign languages operates to bar practically as many superior students as poor ones. Similar conclusions may be drawn in the case of other subjects. Not only was there no relation between pattern of high-school credits and college success, but apparently there is little relation between the mastery of any particular subject and college success.

One seems forced to conclude that, at best, pattern of high-school units as a means of selecting good college risks is but another way of measuring intelligence and industry, and a distinctly inferior one at that. Compared on the basis of predictive usefulness to psychological test scores, high-school marks, and principal's ratings on college promise, the pattern of high-school credits is obviously definitely inferior. The author of this study feels certain that a few decades hence our present practise of selecting college entrants on the basis of minimum credits in certain fields of high-school credits will seem a curious and inexplicable anomaly.

The abandonment of all prescriptions of subjects except as they may be essential prerequisites for certain fields of work, e.g., engineering, is suggested.

The results of this procedure would be: (1) Entrance of capable individuals would not be barred; (2) the secondary school would be freed to meet the needs of its clientele.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

First Session, July 3, 1933

"The Changing Curriculum of the High School" as revealed by the series of studies made by the National Survey of Secondary Education was the focal point of all conferences held by the Department of Secondary Education at the Chicago meeting. The entire first session was given over to papers read by Associate Director Leonard V. Koos and a large number of survey specialists. This session consisted of a general meeting and eight subjectmatter roundtable conferences. The complete success of these conferences points unmistakably to the desire on the part of secondary-school teachers for other such opportunities. An informal talk was given at this general meeting by James B. Edmonson, of the University of Michigan, regarding the activities of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education.

Luncheon Conference, July 4

A luncheon conference at the Auditorium Hotel was briefly addressed by William John Cooper who, by virtue of his office as Commissioner of Education, was in general charge of the Survey, and by Charles Judd of Chicago University, one of the Survey "consultants."

Second Session, July 5

The second general session dealt with "The Relations between the College and the Public High School." Papers were read by P. Roy Brammell, School of Education, Connecticut State College, a Survey specialist; by Mary E. Courtenay, dean

of girls, Lindblom High School, Chicago; and by George Works, dean of students and university examiner, University of Chicago. Abstracts of these papers and of those read at the first session may be found on preceding pages.

Business Meeting, July 5

Following the second regular session of the Department, the annual business meeting was called to order by Ernest D. Lewis, president of the Department of Secondary Education. The minutes of the previous meeting, held at Atlantic City, were read by the secretary, Ann E. Ryder, Dickinson High School, Jersey City, and approved. The president gave a brief survey of the activities of the Department during the past year and suggested profitable work still to be done.

The treasurer's report, in the absence of the treasurer, was read by F. A. Sheridan, president of the Columbus, Ohio, High School Teachers Association. The report showed a balance of \$235.73 on June 29 with unpaid bills amounting to \$443.21. The loan made by the New York City High School Teachers Association, according to the report, had been reduced by the payment of \$50 on March 27.

During the election of officers, which followed, Lolabel Hall, vicepresident of the New York City High School Teachers Association, presided. It was suggested from the floor that inasmuch as the times were critical, it would be wise to reelect the present officers as they knew the work already done and would be apt to carry on with better results than a new group. A motion to reelect all the officers was then made by L. Sullivan of Cincinnati, Ohio, and seconded by E. R. Johnson of Columbus, Ohio, and was carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Department of Secondary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS was organized in Topeka, Kansas, in 1886, under the name of the Department of Secondary Instruction. See *Proceedings*, 1887:393. Anticipating the proposed merger of the National Association of Secondary Principals with the National Education Association, the name of the Department was changed to the Department of Secondary School Principals.

The officers for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Robert B. Clem, Principal, Shawnee High School, Louisville, Ky.; *First Vicepresident*, Charles F. Allen, Supervisor of Secondary Education, Public Schools, Little Rock, Ark.; *Second Vicepresident*, Harrison C. Lyseth, State Supervisor of Secondary Education, Augusta, Maine; *Secretary-Treasurer*, H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Ill.; *Executive Committee*: William E. Burkard, Principal, Tilden Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.; D. A. Morgan, Principal, Shawnee Mission Rural High School, Merriam, Kans.; W. W. Haggard, Superintendent, Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Ill.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1887: 393-442	1897: 644-699	1907: 521-710	1917: 253-284	1927: 599-677
1888: 401-433	1898: 664-700	1908: 577-667	1918: 177-189	1928: 591-650
1889: 497-533	1899: 601-817	1909: 479-522	1919: 195-204	1929: 579-632
1890: 613-655	1900: 428-453	1910: 443-533	1920: 209-230	1930: 543-595
1891: 615-687	1901: 565-604	1911: 555-657	1921: 667-678	1931: 577-620
1892: 333-373	1902: 455-492	1912: 663-765	1922: 1267-1293	1932: 493-524
1893: 177-242	1903: 429-486	1913: 469-499	1923: 861-880	
1894: 743-794	1904: 473-536	1914: 445-488	1924: 775-802	
1895: 579-635	1905: 423-479	1915: 723-753	1925: 450-477	
1896: 557-619	1906: 633-636	1916: 517-574	1926: 637-652	

THE STATE AND ITS HIGH SCHOOLS

E. W. BUTTERFIELD, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, HARTFORD, CONN.

This statement is now being much discussed: "In Europe they plan a secondary-school education for only 10 percent of all children. Here we seek such an education for all children. Can we afford to give opportunities of secondary education to all? Shall we not revise our plan to approach more closely the European standard?"

In a republic public education is not a gift, not charity, not a contribution to the needs of poor and unfortunate parents. Its purpose is to adjust growing citizens to a growing world. We educate not to relieve parents but to protect and perpetuate our investment in culture and civilization. Yet this question asks if we, that is, the rich, the intellectual, the cultured, the old families can afford to give, can we tax ourselves and also tax the poor, the mediocre-minded, the uncouth, and those of foreign birth so that we can make a present of secondary education to those not of our own personal status? It may well be that four out of five college professors and college graduates will nod with approval to a plan which would restrict high-school education to 10 percent of all children, provided that their children and those of their neighbors be in the 10 percent.

Besides the fallacy which the word "give" connotes, a very practical question arises. The question that faces us is not what we can give to the child, but what can we to our own advantage do with the child until he reaches the age of competence and employment. Very bluntly, parents and the state must do something with children until they are old enough to go to work. Fifty years ago this meant until they were fourteen, now it means until they are eighteen. Children reach the secondary-school door at fourteen. If only 10 percent are allowed to enter, some employment must be found for the 90 percent.

Let us begin with the girls. Every main avenue for employment at fourteen has now been closed. The factories will not receive them. Even in the cotton mills larger and more complicated machinery has forever put an end to child labor at the loom. The department stores no longer want these children. These stores are run by men and women, and except for the Christmas rush, the stores want young people but no children. Housework has been closed to them too. This was very common in 1900 but today houses have electrical and other appliances and the kitchen girl is not employed. Furthermore, marriage is closed to them.

For boys the story is not different. The care of horses, the milking of cows, special farm activities gave employment to thousands of farm boys in 1890 and continues to do this in European countries. In great measure this work with us is now gone. Changes have come so that the presence of minors in industry up to the age of eighteen by our certain knowledge and probably up to the time of majority at twenty-one is an economic disadvantage.

There is, then, but one answer. If we adopt the European status of 10 percent of fourteen- to eighteen-year-old children in school, we must accept the standard of living that produces employment for 90 percent of these children. This means a reduction to a status of peasantry on the farm and of child labor in the cities. We have outgrown this and in America public education will continue to be offered to all children of secondary-school age.

IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN INSTRUCTION

R. R. COOK, PRINCIPAL, THEODORE ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL, DES MOINES,
IOWA

There are three possible ways of reducing instructional costs: (1) reduce educational offerings; (2) reduce teachers' salaries; (3) increase the number of pupils per teacher. The average taxpayer does not want his children's educational opportunities to suffer. Teachers do not want their salaries cut. It may be possible to meet a goodly portion of the necessary reduction in school taxes by finding more efficient teaching methods.

We need to make more extensive use of our stronger teachers. By more efficient methods, such teachers should be enabled to teach larger numbers of pupils. If so, the public can afford to pay them good salaries.

In two of the Des Moines high schools there are at the present time experimental units in each of which a master teacher, with the assistance of a well trained but inexperienced apprentice, is teaching five classes of sixty-five pupils each. The instructor makes extensive use of mimeographed outlines and tests. He has two rooms, one a classroom for recitation purposes, the other a workroom for the use of the apprentice. The apprentice grades papers, prepares outlines and tests, gathers and tabulates reference readings, assists absentees in making up their work, aids slow pupils and keeps class records. General class recitations and lectures are reduced to a minimum. Thirty-minute discussions are held two or three times each week, some of these consisting of group discussions in which the class is broken up into small units, each under its own student leader. Short tests are given every few days and major tests at the close of each unit of work.

The results up to date indicate that pupils of ability are benefiting from the challenge to greater independence and initiative. They are being thrown more on their own resources and have more time and incentive to work. The weak pupils are receiving more individual help and guidance than formerly. Test scores and marks at the close of the fall semester show results as good as those secured in the past in small classes, by the same instructor. The experiment will result in a financial saving to the school district of about 20 percent of the salary of two experienced teachers.

The writer wishes to challenge others to carry on similar experiments in different subjects and with different methods, believing that secondary schools have only made a beginning in their movement toward improvement and greater efficiency in classroom methods.

DIRECTED LEARNING AND THE UNIT ASSIGNMENT

ROY O. BILLET, SPECIALIST IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, U. S. OFFICE OF
EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

All learning originates in the interaction of the individual with his environment, that is, in experience. From unguided experience the individual receives no guarantee of his own growth, success, and happiness, and society obtains no promise of continuous improvement. Hence, in terms of the functions of the school, education must be the result of "guided experience" and synonymous with "directed learning."

The modern educator has caught a vision of the possibilities inherent in directed learning both for the individual and for society. He perceives that if these possibilities are to be realized the random efforts of individual educators and school systems must be replaced by collective action. Five aspects of the work to be done may be noted. First, valid objectives toward which pupils should work must be established. These objectives should range in a harmonious series from the most general and ultimate to the most specific and immediate. In the formulation of these objectives due consideration must be given to the pupil's hereditary make-up, to his normal processes of growth, and to the nature of the social order in which he will participate. Second, a controlled environment must be created wherein the pupil, by means of planned activities and experiences may attain the various objectives in optimum sequence. Third, the pupil's activities and experiences must be intelligently supervised and directed. Fourth, valid and reliable methods must be employed to determine when each objective has been attained. Fifth, each objective must be so attained that the pupil is challenged to move toward new objectives which have appeared, by no means accidentally, beyond the new horizon.

As a part of a general movement toward the more efficient and valid direction of learning, the fundamental changes which have occurred during the past quarter of a century in the philosophy, the psychology, and the principles of education have been followed or paralleled by radical changes in classroom procedure. In the secondary school the most thoro-going change has been introduced under the name of one or another of ten plans, methods or technics which in the aggregate may be designated as "plans characterized by the unit assignment." These plans are known in educational literature as (1) the project method, (2) the problem method, (3) differentiated assignments, (4) long-unit assignments, (5) the contract plan, (6) the laboratory plan, (7) individualized instruction, (8) the Morrison plan or some modification, (9) the Winnetka technic or some modification, and (10) the Dalton plan or some modification. Studies conducted in connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education have revealed that in the actual practises of outstanding secondary schools these procedures differ in name only. A central feature of each plan is the direction of learning by means of some form of the unit assignment, with resultant modifications of classroom procedure.

In the use of plans characterized by the unit assignment much confusion can be avoided if a clear distinction is maintained between the "unit" and the "unit assignment." Studies made in connection with the survey indicate that the "unit" is best defined as a concept, attitude, appreciation, knowledge, or skill to be acquired by the pupil, which if acquired will presumably modify his thinking or his other behavior in a desirable way. Thus defined, the units of a course are the objectives of the course. On the other hand, the "unit assignment" should be regarded as consisting of those required activities and experiences which have been planned by the teacher to enable the pupil to master the unit.

In outstanding schools in which one or another of the various plans characterized by the unit assignment is used, a well-defined teaching and learning cycle has evolved. This cycle is typically divided into four phases: (1) the introduction, (2) the individual-work (or laboratory) period, (3) the period of class discussion, and (4) the testing period. Detailed discussion of the purposes of each of these phases and of the methods used in each is impossible in this brief abstract. However, it should be said that the resulting classroom procedure bears little if any resemblance to the traditional "recitation."

The possibilities of successful direction of learning by means of the unit assignment and by means of the accompanying changes in classroom procedure far transcend anything so far accomplished, largely because the units and unit assignments now in use in the best secondary schools are purely the results of empirical and often hasty analyses of existing subjectmatter. Only rarely do the units and unit assignments in use rest on even meager research into pupils' normal activities, psychological stages of growth, present needs, immediate interests, or probable adult needs. Such strikingly important matters as the determination of the optimum sequence of units, the correlation of assignments, the differentiation of units and assignments for pupils of different interests, abilities, needs, and aims, for the most part are arrived at unsystematically by workers laboring under the pressure of teaching and administrative burdens which preclude the use of the methods of scientific research even if the workers were trained in the use of such procedures.

The improvement of practise could be immeasurably accelerated if, in conjunction with the present widespread, empirical attack on the problem of directed learning, a constant research program were kept continuously under way directed by the ablest research workers available. Much of the research work would produce materials of nationwide usefulness, certainly needing only minor modifications for local situations. Classroom teachers and supervisors would be constantly supplied with the products of research and would give such materials the acid test of classroom use. The research program would be constantly oriented by criticisms emanating directly from the classroom.

The problem of correlating an extensive research program with the present widespread empirical attempts to improve units and unit assign-

ments now in use, is one which should receive the attention of state and national organizations interested in secondary education. The vast amount of effort now being expended to improve the direction of learning should be coordinated and a greater certainty of continuous improvement should be assured.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF REGIONAL ACCREDITING AGENCIES TO SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THIS CRISIS

J. B. EDMONSON, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF
MICHIGAN, ANN ARBOR, MICH.

It has been proposed that the regional agencies should suspend their standards during this period. I have no sympathy with any such proposal unless it is agreed that the standards have possessed no great degree of validity during the past decade. If the regional associations were to declare a moratorium, the secondary schools in many communities would be at the mercy of persons who have no interest in providing an adequate program of secondary-school instruction. In such a period as this the standardizing agencies can be of great help to secondary schools by being lenient in deserving cases and by being severe in treating bogus claims.

The regional associations should be lenient in the application of standards for accrediting in those cases where the school authorities and the communities are making an honest and determined effort to meet the requirements. There are scores of cases where schools deserve a marked degree of leniency. In all probability there are some cases where alibis and flimsy excuses are offered for failure to meet reasonable requirements; even in periods of prosperity such evasions and excuses were offered by some school authorities and some communities.

The regional agencies should become more aggressive in attacking the problem of effective articulation between the colleges and the secondary schools. Too long the secondary schools and the colleges have been friendly enemies. The time has come when there are so many common enemies of both secondary and higher education that we must eliminate any unnecessary feuds within the profession. Possibly we need to cease talking about cooperation between colleges and secondary schools and devote our attention to a discussion of a vigorous defense of education by united forces.

The regional associations should attempt to develop a better agreement as to the real philosophy of American secondary education and then make a determined effort to have this philosophy understood by teachers and laymen. Unless we can reach a better agreement on the scope and objectives of secondary education, we shall find it extremely difficult to evaluate present programs and to make plans for the future.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THIS CRISIS

WILLIAM H. BRISTOW, DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT, STATE DEPARTMENT OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

Because of social and economic uncertainty it becomes increasingly important that the state, representing society's administrative agency, determine the direction in which education should be going.

This should not mean a stereotyped, predetermined program which will condition boys and girls to set ways of action. It does mean, however, that educational objectives should be clarified and that out of our present seeming confusion should come some agreement as to what schools are for.

The Youth Movement in America is in the American high school, now enrolling over 50 percent of those eligible to attend. Courses of study offered to this vast army of young citizens must be organized around social, economic, political, and industrial problems of real interest. Individual needs must also be considered if we hope to conserve for democracy and the future this vast reservoir of potential strength, if we wish to develop an American personality able and willing to face squarely problems of personal, state and national concern.

The present emergency threatens to disorganize and devitalize secondary education programs in many respects. State departments of education should act as a steadying influence in helping local districts to stabilize educational programs and prevent wholesale reorganization without thought to the consequences which such reorganization will have upon the equity which presentday youth have in the future—an equity which can be safeguarded only by guaranteeing to them these present educational opportunities.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE BOARDS TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THIS CRISIS

MAURICE J. LACY, HEADMASTER, JAMAICA PLAIN HIGH SCHOOL,
BOSTON, MASS.

I join Dean Edmonson in his belief, that in the present crisis, in view of the wave of criticism of American education that is sweeping thru the country, it is incumbent upon every element in our educational system to have a self-examination to ascertain what features of our educational system have met the test of time and what require adjustments.

Dean Edmonson's second recommendation is that regional agencies become more aggressive in attacking the problem of effective articulation between colleges and secondary schools. The fact which he stated that, instead of accepting pupils merely on the basis of their ability to pass examinations, many colleges are making use of high scholarship tests,

measures of ability, and records made in high schools in a variety of fields of work, is a hopeful sign. Progress is being made along that line and the charge that colleges are indissolubly wedded to the "entrance by examination" policy is rapidly being disproved. Further articulation between colleges and secondary schools, as a result of joint study by both groups, will heal up the sore spot in their relations.

Dean Edmonson's third recommendation "that the problem of the curriculum of the secondary school should be re-attacked in the light of the social and economic development of the last few years" is, I believe, the most important of his five recommendations. Training in economics in its various phases, I believe, is the most clamoring need of the secondary-school curriculum. By economics, I include every branch that treats of proper saving or wise spending of the money we earn. If colleges would give an impetus to instruction along this line, if they would give as much credit to such causes as they do to the conventional language and mathematics courses, the secondary schools would be given an inspiration that would aid them to develop these thrift courses for all their pupils.

Again, I believe that greater training in citizenship must be given in our secondary schools, if our country is to prosper. In general, our pupils, other than those enrolled in the college course, receive an elementary training in civics. As a rule, such a course generally not accredited by colleges, is omitted from the college curriculum. Intensive and realistic training in government should be a feature of all secondary-school courses to the end that a higher type of citizenship will prevail thruout the land.

I would also recommend an elementary course in law for every secondary-school pupil. The woeful results occasioned frequently by the abysmal ignorance of our citizens in the matter of civil law is an indictment of our educational system. Between a year of mathematics or a foreign language and a year of instruction in law, I recommend the latter.

Indications point to the fact that in the future the working hours of our citizens will be lessened and the time for leisure will be correspondingly increased. How are we training future citizens for the use of this leisure? What are we doing in cultivating an appreciation of the fine arts? For example, music, perhaps, of all the fine arts, has the most general appeal among all people. What are secondary schools and colleges doing to foster an appreciation of music? If colleges would credit a course along this line, again great impetus would be given to the work.

There are a few instances of changes in curriculum that could be made. Of course, some of the conventional college preparatory course would have to be removed, but are not the substitutes in thrift training, in law, in citizenship, in music appreciation, worthy of serious consideration? In this crisis, as never before, comes the opportunity to make adjustments in curriculum. This is the chief duty just now of both colleges and secondary schools.

The fourth recommendation is "that regional associations should be lenient in the application of standards for accrediting in these cases where the school authorities and the communities are making an honest and determined effort to meet requirements." Let me cite the custom of Harvard which admits without examinations any member of the upper seventh of a class in a school of the above category. The test of such a system depends upon the ability of such pupils to maintain the required standing in the college. In general, I believe that colleges are considerate in this respect. In return, secondary schools enjoying this privilege must prove worthy of the trust placed in them by the colleges.

The fifth, and final, recommendation "that regional associations should encourage a greater amount of experimentation in our secondary schools" I heartily endorse. It is only by such experimentation that educational progress can be obtained.

When colleges encourage such experimentation and accredit this work, secondary schools will feel free to experiment with their college preparatory pupils. The fear that such experimentation conflicts with the prescribed college preparatory curriculum makes secondary schools timid about engaging in this desirable experimentation.

Might it not be well, if the impending adjustments in our system of secondary education are to come, to have these adjustments made by councils of secondary school and college administrators with the assistance and advice of leaders in thought outside our ranks? They are the ones who actually have tested in various walks of life the value of the education the schoolmen have given them. I leave this idea as a final suggestion for consideration. The application of this idea, iconoclastic tho it be, may aid educators in their efforts to improve our system of secondary education.

IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

JESSE H. NEWLON, DIRECTOR, LINCOLN SCHOOL, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

The depression and its attendant hysteria are forcing decreased expenditures, but let us not deceive ourselves into believing that these cuts are in any justifiable sense economies. The educational program should be retained intact. Capital expenditures can be postponed; staffs can be reduced by not filling vacancies. Salaries should be decreased as little as possible. Teachers should give evidence of their willingness to share the public burdens, but we should also show that we have some intelligence and realistic appreciation of the facts of the situation.

It is essential that the educative process should be carried on in the most effective manner with the least possible dawdling and waste. Some have contended that the period of secondary education should be shortened. Is such a proposal wise or possible? This question cannot be answered merely

in terms of experimentation within the existing school organization, for that leaves out of consideration powerful social and economic factors. It can be answered adequately only in terms of national aspirations and resources.

Just now we are in the paradoxical position of being poor because we can easily produce great wealth. Obviously the situation demands the application of intelligence. It means that the period of youth will be lengthened and that universal education must be provided up to eighteen or twenty, or possibly twenty-two years of age, and that such work as youth may do will be increasingly for educational and less for productive purposes.

Given our modern technology, have we still the natural resources requisite to such an educational program? Our resources and technology will not only support universal education thru high school but will compel it.

Where, then, is the waste in the high school? Is the high school deficient in that it does not employ good methods of teaching? Is it inefficient in that the students do not learn well the subjectmatter set out to be learned? Is the high school providing for American youth today the education that contemporary American life demands? The great demand of our time is for a social intelligence and leadership capable of finding solutions for the problems of today, and it is here that we find the challenge to the American high school.

The high school will render its best service if it gives the individual an understanding of the culture in which he lives, of the social, economic, and political problems which flow from the onward rush of the industrial revolution. Does the high school provide such education? It is at this point that we find the waste in the American high school.

The present situation calls for nothing less than a redirection of our whole secondary-school curriculum. By what process shall we go about this redirection? First of all, a thoro-going analysis of our American culture in all its major aspects is required—a study of the status of esthetics, of the family and other institutions, of the role of science and technology, of the economic and industrial system, of government, of international relationships, social and moral problems, of education itself. This is a practical measure that can be undertaken by any high-school faculty.

There is no reason to suppose that America cannot support an adequate program of secondary education. The logic of our resources and technology will inevitably bring universal education in American to age eighteen or twenty. To utilize our resources for the benefit of all requires minds equipped with the social concepts and outlook of today and tomorrow. Secondary education must be reconstructed in the light of these principles. If the Department of Secondary School Principals will think in large terms and courageously, it will exercise great influence in the period of reconstruction upon which we are entering. But we must go beyond the walls of the school to find the answers to many of our educational problems.

ADAPTING THE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM TO THE NEEDS OF THE PUPILS

HARL R. DOUGLASS, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA,
MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

The high-school curriculum should be formulated with the purpose of contributing to the welfare of the nation. In the past the central theme has been the individual interest of the pupil.

The maintenance of secondary schools by taxes paid by all of the people cannot be justified, if education is to be regarded merely as a means of aiding some individuals to get ahead of others or to possess some intellectual or cultural adornment which others do not possess.

The advocates of the public high school who persuaded the public to take over the support of secondary education were not interested ultimately in the individual pupil who would go to them. They were concerned with the increased welfare of the nation which they believed would result from providing for secondary education. They believed that free secondary education would operate to insure honest democratic government, to reduce crime, and to promote general economic prosperity.

High-school enrolments have doubled every decade since 1880. Yet in 1933 we now witness the tragedy of thousands of lawbreakers being paroled to prey upon the people because the workhouses and penitentiaries are crowded; municipal and, to a lesser extent, state and national government, reek with legal and illegal bad faith and dishonesty; a quarter of our population are dependent upon charity; the machine and the money-lender are detaching men from their jobs and farmers from their land in such numbers that we are on the verge of a return to feudalism. All this in spite of a national surplus of labor, food, raw materials, machines, and transportation.

The high-school curriculum and the high-school teachers must be faced in the direction of making the contribution to the solution of these problems which the nation has every right to expect. This contribution can be made only when young men and women leave the high school with sound ideals of civic righteousness and of social justice, and with a greater knowledge of government, economics, and current affairs than the average college graduate now has. This will not only mean a revision of the high-school curriculum but a new type of training of high-school teachers.

THE TEACHING AND LEARNING SITUATION IN JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL CLASSROOMS

H. H. RYAN, PRINCIPAL, WISCONSIN HIGH SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF
WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS.

The need for economy in school finance compels the junior high school to give careful consideration to relative values. Some of the activities of the school day must be eliminated to save expense. The question is, what activities?

Many thoughtful parents show an unmistakable interest in the type of school activity which we call extracurriculum. Some of the things that parents say and do in this connection suggest a decidedly greater importance and value for these activities than for the items which appear in the program of studies. Perhaps these parental attitudes should be credited more than we have credited them, as criteria of the worth of various school activities.

The demand of the so-called taxpayers' alliances in various parts of the country that the "frills" be eliminated from the school program should lead parents and teachers to reflect that there are subjects in the secondary-school curriculum which are there because they have always been there, because it is eminently respectable to offer them, in spite of the fact that only the scantiest intellectual or social profits can be traced to them. If "frills" are things that are ornamental rather than useful, such subjects as Latin and algebra will have to fight to survive the housecleaning. The actual "frills" are not at all what the apostles of minimum school expenditures have in mind when they inveigh against "frills."

The social problems of this country and of the world in general are so tremendous as to demand first place in the thoughts of secondary-school pupils. Critical economic and sociological facts must be so thoroly taught to adolescents that junior high-school graduates will never be content with anything less than a real and constructive solution of these problems. Even if solutions were now ready, they could not be introduced into the political order without a persistent demand for better things, from a people united in the conviction that a crime ridden society of technological paupers is utterly unnecessary.

PUBLIC RELATIONS OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

G. H. VANDE BOGART, PRESIDENT, NORTHERN MONTANA COLLEGE,
HAVRE, MONT.

The junior college, new as it is, has proved during the past three decades of its existence the fact that it is doing, and is prepared to do with still greater effectiveness, a most essential work in American education. Vitally important as is the junior college, it is most essential that the public know of its distinctive place in education, of the service that it is giving, and that it bids fair to extend in greater measure as it assumes a larger range of functions and as its potentialities become realizations. It is obvious that no institution may progress far beyond the understanding of the community which it serves. It is equally obvious that the able and far-sighted administrator will recognize the problem of public relations as one of the major divisions of his work.

The subject of public relations of the junior college will be presented by considering three practical questions, each of which occurs to us immediately when we consider this phase of administrative responsibilities. These questions may be stated as follows:

1. What materials are to be supplied in the field of educational information?
2. Thru what media may the various organizations, groups, and individuals of the community be reached?

3. What further developments may be effectively attained in the public relations of our junior colleges?

Much research of value has been completed in the field of public-school publicity. Attention has been given for many years, also, to the scientific study of public relations of higher institutions. In the case of the junior college, much of our earlier study of publicity must be re-evaluated in terms of adjustment of these important institutions to the economic conditions of the present day as they are reflected in our schools. The very newness of the junior college has given it flexibility of program and of policies, and has made it especially alert to opportunities for service to its community and for adjustment and reorganization as these have become necessary at the present time. A new fund of information must be collected, organized, and placed consistently, continuously, and completely, before the public. Well-prepared publicity is an asset not only to the local institution but to the junior college movement as a whole.

THE NORTH CAROLINA PROGRAM OF STATE SUPPORT AS AFFECTING HIGH SCHOOLS

ELMER H. GARINGER, PRINCIPAL, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, CHARLOTTE, N. C.

North Carolina has equalized educational opportunity to the extent of a six months' term. The state in 1931 took over the complete support and operation of all public schools for six months. Money is collected from property and income where it is, but is distributed evenly where the educational needs are. In the past the current expense for the rural child was 46 percent of that of the largest cities. Six times as much effort to support a given educational program was necessary in some counties as in others. The new legislation provides equal opportunity at greatly reduced costs in most counties where levies on property for current operation of schools are reduced on an average of 61 percent. Many districts have better schools and longer terms. Unless pooling of funds had taken place a great number of schools would not have kept open.

Dissatisfaction with the plan of state control comes from the cities and counties that find the State Board of Equalization committed to the principle of limiting all budgets. Education is demoted, not promoted in these places. Is this limitation the sign of a "new frontier"—the supplanting of local autonomy for state bureaucracy? Should cities that want and can pay for better schools than the state minimum provides not be allowed to have them?

Few object to the principle of state support. Does it follow that state control is necessary or wise? Will it not mean a deadening uniformity of work and a stultifying of effort? Many North Carolina schoolmen feel that such is the case after their experience of two years.

State support is a notable achievement. It has given life and hope to impoverished rural communities. Under a state board of education set up not for

reduction of taxes primarily, but to give the most effective education to the youth of the state, the plan of state control might operate differently.

ANALYZING OBJECTIVES IN MUSIC EDUCATION

RUSSELL V. MORGAN, DIRECTOR OF MUSIC, CLEVELAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF MUSIC, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, WESTERN RE-
SERVE UNIVERSITY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

The prime objective in music education is the development of emotional power to be expressed thru skills and controlled by musical intelligence, provided with proper life relationship and by understanding of its vital place in the everyday life of man thruout all ages.

Differentiation in opportunity should provide not only different avenues for development of musical ability but should also quite definitely provide different levels and amounts of training for the varying talent levels of the student body.

It is necessary to realize the four pathways to musical reaction, namely: (1) physical; (2) sensuous; (3) intellectual; (4) emotional. Each of these pathways must be utilized and the value of our training depends upon the balance we secure among these four approaches. The specific objectives in the study of music might well be expressed as follows: (1) emotional expression; (2) satisfaction in skills; (3) development of musical intelligence; (4) creative power; (5) a background of musical history and vocal and instrumental literature; (6) aesthetic appreciation; (7) social relationships.

If the proper balance is secured in the procedures aimed at these objectives, music education will not be a dry technical study lacking inspiration, nor will it be an emotional "spilling over" without controls. It should result in an intelligent performance or hearing of music that has back of it the throbbing power of emotion which gives it vitality.

ANALYZING ART OBJECTIVES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

INDIANOLA WILLCUTS, SUPERVISOR OF ART EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
DULUTH, MINN.

The art program for secondary schools has changed. Freehand drawing no longer appears on the curriculum. Art appreciation has taken its place.

New courses of study are being made on art appreciation thruout the United States, but of those on the market at present, perhaps that by Forrest Grant for the secondary schools of New York City is the most outstanding.

An analysis of this course will be the best analysis of art objectives in the high schools.

The printed course called "Art Appreciation" is an art product in itself and worthy to be displayed on the table of any art room.

Mr. Grant says that the purpose of the course "is to reveal to the pupil the beauty of nature and the arts so that he may recognize and enjoy the world

of beautiful things about him and gain an appreciation of the finest, which will reflect beauty in his life and in his living."

He gives as his aims the following:

(1) *To engender love of beauty* by bringing pupils into personal contact with beautiful things—a Lalique bowl, a tapestry from Perugia, a delightful flower arrangement.

(2) *To develop good taste* by helping the pupil to cultivate the habit of thoughtful consideration before making decisions—For which room is this picture best suited? This room is on the north side of the house. Shall the overdrapes be in warm or cool colors?

(3) *To enrich life and train for leisure* by acquainting the pupil with the finest expressions of the past—thru pictures, museums, and books.

(4) *To gratify a desire to create* by affording the pupil an opportunity to exercise his imagination thru creative design—by blockprinting a wall hanging or making a beautiful box, etc.

(5) *To encourage talent* by discovering the gifted pupil—by permitting classes to use various mediums in different problems, he may discover the one medium in which he can work most efficiently.

Because of this present emphasis on "creating" there have come about two kinds of creative problems—those which are the products of children who have been taught a technic and products by those who have been allowed just to "create."

Concerning this "creating," William H. Kilpatrick, professor of education, Teachers College, states the following tasks for art teachers:

First of all, develop or aid or build or encourage the power and disposition to create.

Second, teach an appropriate technic.

Third, build or develop art appreciation.

The kind of creating for which Dr. Kilpatrick stands is the kind for which we must all stand if products are to be worthy of the name of "art" products.

Finally, "Let us agree," says Mr. Wiseltier, "that it is not our main purpose to produce artists. We are teaching art appreciation that will function in everyday life."

INDUSTRIAL ARTS OBJECTIVES AND THEIR ATTAINMENT

HOMER J. SMITH, PROFESSOR OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF
MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Proposed objectives of industrial arts are:

(1) to develop skill in the use of common tools; (2) to afford industrial information and social intelligence; (3) to foster appreciation of good materials and workmanship; (4) to further intelligent choices of life occupations; (5) to inculcate worthy personal traits and attitudes; and (6) to provide a measure of specific occupational training.

We must stress our courses as worthy parts of the fundamental training of all boys. We must show that our subjects and methods make a contribution

that is unique and that should be denied to none. And, this privilege should be extended to the boys in private and parochial schools. If industrial arts is really a function of full development, we stand rebuked until every American boy has these advantages regardless of his school connections. Our slogan may well be: Industrial arts for every American boy, and trade or technical training for carefully selected boys in the number that can be placed.

Everyone should have some knowledge of the purposes, the working conditions, and the employment possibilities of our industrial society. One's education is not complete in these days without some understanding of the history and trends of manufacture and exchange. So many people are either directly concerned or so clearly affected that industrial information and insights have become a necessity.

The elementary six-grade school can encourage self-expression of manual type and insure acquaintance with the rudiments of work life and work relationships. It will suffice if elementary children learn that industry is important, that it is greatly diversified, that men work so that they and others may live, and that sooner or later each child of today must play his part in the labor that is life.

The industrial work of the junior high school is best conceived as informational and exploratory. The chief aims at this level are physical coordination, industrial intelligence, and a start in the direction of occupational choice. To attempt to match the community type and need at this level is to deny the major purposes of the junior high school.

There must be increased provision for vocational courses in the offering of the senior high school. The industrial arts work in this unit should tend to the highly practical under an elective system. One of the chief needs just now is to make the high schools so democratic and so attractive that young people will be kept longer out of competition with their elders who need the work so much.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN JUNIOR-COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

W. W. CARPENTER, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI,
COLUMBIA, MO.

Junior colleges come and go but the total number and the total enrolment are rapidly increasing. The percentage of change in the administrative head of the junior college lowered from 15 percent in 1932 to 12 percent in 1933. This would indicate growing stability in the face of the depression. A comparison of the directories of 1932 and 1933 also indicated that the two-year organization is growing in popularity.

There seems to be a rather unusual movement, probably as a result of the depression, to advocate reducing teachers colleges to junior colleges. The staff appointed to survey the higher-education program of the state of North Carolina recommended that two teacher-training institutions be reduced to junior colleges. The staff appointed to make a study of the government of the state

of Texas recommended that four teachers colleges be made junior colleges and become branches of the University of Texas.

The report of the survey of higher education in California sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching makes the following recommendations:

. . . that the junior college should be recognized as the completion unit of free, tax-supported, public education; that graduation from it should be marked by the title of "Associate in Arts"; that the curriculum should be broadened especially along the lines of "social intelligence" and adult education; that increased emphasis should be placed upon better counseling and guidance; that education of freshman and sophomore grades, whether given in junior colleges, in teachers colleges, or in the university, should be upon the same basis, as far as possible, especially as regards preparation of instructors and financial support; and that under present conditions the development of four-year, independent, regional colleges from junior colleges should not be permitted.

Kansas City, Missouri, under the auspices of the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges is carrying on an experiment to determine if the time usually devoted to the work of the high school and junior college can be shortened by one year. The first class under the new plan will graduate in 1933. The Universities of Missouri and Kansas have agreed to cooperate with the experiment by admitting the graduates of the new plan with junior standing.

The problems of the high-school postgraduates are closely related to the problems of the junior college. The number of postgraduates in our high schools has been increasing over a series of years. It has been estimated that the army of unemployed graduates knocking at the high-school door numbers 100,000. The presence of large numbers of such students offers a real challenge to our school systems. Can work be organized for them that will not only keep them off the streets and employed but also that will better equip them for service? The problems confronting those dealing with the high-school postgraduate are largely those being successfully handled by our junior colleges. The junior college may be called upon to make many an investigation and many a contribution to school reorganization and adjustment during the period of this crisis.

A STUDY OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPIL POPULATION IN AID OF THE REVISION OF THE CURRICULUM

L. W. SMITH, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BERKELEY, CALIF.

The staff of the Berkeley public schools, like those in many other cities, is in the process of continuous revision of its curriculum. Many problems arise in connection with such a project which it is difficult to follow because of the lack of dependable information. During the last few years it has been the practise to carry on researches of various kinds from a practical point of view to provide as much of this needed data as possible.

The high-school courses are based upon what are supposed to be the courses given in the elementary schools and the junior high schools of the city. In how far is it possible to depend upon the principle that the foundation work is laid by the curriculum as taught in the Berkeley public schools? A questionnaire was prepared and filled out by every pupil in the Berkeley high school on October 4, 1932. There were approximately 2700 pupils in the senior high school.

One of the purposes of the questionnaire was to find out how many of the students now enrolled had gone thru the Berkeley system. Another question we wished to answer was how many students had had an opportunity to take the exploratory courses given in the junior high schools.

Summarizing the results, 34 percent of the students now enrolled in Berkeley high school attended Berkeley schools continuously from first grade to date. Some students attended in Berkeley for a time, dropped out, and returned later. Percents attending each grade in Berkeley schools from first to ninth ranged from 42 percent attending the first grade in Berkeley to 80 percent attending the ninth. Eighty-two percent of all students enrolled attended a junior high school in grades seven and eight. How much work of an exploratory nature was offered by those junior high schools outside of Berkeley we have no means of knowing. Nine percent attended an eight-grade grammar school.

Material on hand as a result of this research shows clearly that the high-school courses cannot be completely set up on the assumption that certain types of work have been done in the curriculum in the lower grades and in the junior high school. In this connection the data herein developed indicate that the pupils going thru the junior high schools must, as far as it is at all practicable, be exposed to the exploratory courses and these courses must be conducted in such a way as to establish clearly in the minds of the pupils the character and significance of the trial courses which they are taking. It is further made clear that the counselling department should see to it that all of the pupils shall have had at least the minimum number of trial courses provided for.

Another important conclusion is that the general and trial courses already established in the high school must be fully utilized for the benefit of those pupils who for one reason or another did not have opportunity of taking these courses on the junior high-school level.

THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL IMPLICATIONS OF CERTAIN INDUSTRIAL STUDIES IN EMPLOYMENT RESEARCH

VERNE C. FRYKLUND, INSTRUCTOR, INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

A wide variety of tests administered to groups of factory workers prove that classification of workers according to abilities, duties performed, and training time required for proficiency is possible.

A classification consisting of five classes—A, B, C, D, and E—was made at the Employment Stabilization Research Institute, University of Minnesota. There are 2.8 percent class A workers, 7.8 percent class B workers, 33.7 percent class C workers, 44.5 percent class D workers, and 11.1 percent class E workers found in industry. They are listed in order of the abilities they possess. Class A is the highest type of worker and Class E is the lowest, or the common laborer. Tests successfully differentiated these workers according to classes.

Factory workers are eighth graders and practically no mathematics is required of them. Only .3 percent of a total of 4040 factory workers of all kinds needed to make calculations of any sort and these calculations involve only the simplest arithmetic.

It would be well for the administrator, who knows that a particular boy is destined to leave school for factory work, to permit him to spend considerable time in the shops and give less time to formal subjects. Let him become versatile in the use of machines and in performing operations on them. Let the shop teacher teach him what little arithmetic he needs. Even the development of ordinary reading ability, for those boys who must leave school early, could be left to the shop teacher thru his utilization of written instruction sheets. Only classes in civics and hygiene need be taught formally for these boys who must leave school early for factory work.

COOPERATIVE STUDIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN NEW YORK STATE

GEORGE M. WILEY, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, STATE
EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ALBANY, N. Y.

The major interest in progressive secondary education in New York state during the past four years has been centered in the cooperative studies which have been carried on by groups of principals representing every section of the state and also every type of school. Furthermore, the significant feature of this activity is found in the word "cooperative." Many principals were engaged in these studies and in attacking these problems. The large number of men and women in administrative work in secondary education who made up the membership of these groups insured a breadth of vision and a common denominator of thinking without which no progressive program in any level of education can be developed.

As illustrative of the cooperative character of these studies even in these early stages it may be noted that the superintendents, principals, and high-school teachers were kept in close touch with the work that was being carried forward. The first tentative draft of functions or "theses" as they were called, was sent out to thousands of teachers inviting their comment and urging a full expression of their point of view. These reactions from the teaching staff were analyzed and used in the two later revisions.

The fact that each teacher was invited to express his or her own thought in detail regarding these proposals had a profound influence on the thinking of the entire teaching staff. In other words, a new philosophy was beginning to modify the practices in secondary education long before any formal report appeared. Another phase of the initial work was of no less significance, the cooperation invited from pupil groups.

The second step brought us face to face with specific problems dealing with the readjustments needed in secondary schools. As an aid toward insuring reasonably adequate factual data regarding the nature of the adolescent groups in junior and senior high schools several research studies were carried on by the research division of the state department in addition to those already mentioned.

It will be appreciated that we were confronted with many more issues than could be given prompt consideration. After careful consideration the following problems were selected for study, each assigned to a separate subcommittee.

1. The reorganization of the social studies to meet the needs of adolescents in a modern social democracy
2. The function of directed study as a classroom technic in the redirection of secondary education
3. The problem of constants in the curriculum
4. The place of guidance as an aid in the realization of the purposes of the secondary school
5. What types of secondary schools should be organized and what reorganization of present high schools are advisable to serve more adequately the adolescent population?

An immediate result of these cooperative studies, and one of far-reaching significance, is the fact that the large majority of secondary teachers of the state are now thinking purposefully regarding the philosophy underlying secondary education. Another immediate outcome is the coordinating effort of research workers, school administrators, and classroom teachers. Possibly the most immediate outcome is a changed point of view. The thinking of the teacher has been thoroly aroused. Even some principals have been awakened to the fact that secondary education has deep social significance. As a result, purposeful and constructive experimentation is being carried on in scores of schools and centers thruout the state.

All such studies and experimentation should be continuing as well as cooperative. We have no thought that the five problems which have been mentioned will be in any sense finally settled when the several reports appear in printed form. The challenge is in the problem rather than in its final solution. The school system which assumes that it has solved all curriculum problems is ready for burial. The constantly changing complexity of the social, industrial, and economic order in which we live compels the school to use every resource at its command in readjusting its work to meet these rapidly changing conditions. Only as such problems are recognized as continuing in character will reasonably satisfactory outcomes be attained.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE NEW DEAL

H. L. DONOVAN, PRESIDENT, EASTERN KENTUCKY STATE TEACHERS
COLLEGE, RICHMOND, KY.

What will be the attitude of the spokesmen of the new deal toward education? This is a question of no small consequence. The answer to this question will have an important bearing on the final outcome of this issue. It is a well-known fact that the opponents of the new deal are enlisted behind a movement to curtail the educational opportunities of the children of this country. Special privilege, everywhere entrenched, would like to liquidate intelligence. Many agencies are devoting their utmost energies to block the spread of education. They have decreed a moratorium on secondary and higher education. Will they succeed? It is our opinion that the ultimate destiny of the new deal hangs on the answer to this question.

It cannot be said for America today that we have yet provided *universal* secondary education. In the new deal will we permit the accident of one's place of birth or the chance of one's abode to determine his opportunities for intellectual development? We expect the new deal to take cognizance of the forgotten children of our country as well as the forgotten men. We confidently expect to see the high-school enrolment continue to increase until at least 80 or 90 percent of all the children of secondary-school age will be in attendance.

If the 2,000,000 children of high-school age could be sent back to school this fall, thus releasing their jobs to adults, what effect would this have upon unemployment? Have the spokesmen for the new deal considered the possibilities for at least a partial solution of the problem of unemployment that may lie in this direction? Would it not be wise to spend a few millions of these billions of dollars in the erection of public high schools? Without depreciating the value of a road or bridge, is not the school of equal value to a civilization?

If some of these billions can be used to erect secondary schools, the unemployed can be set to work building structures that will prove a benediction to our present and future generations. If the educators of America could ring the school bell next September and summon back to school the 2,000,000 youth now employed, national recovery would be advanced more than by any proposal so far advocated.

Let us examine another side of this picture. A study of the 1930 census shows that there are approximately 11,500,000 children in our nation in the age group 14-17 years inclusive. If 5,387,000 are in school and 2,000,000 gainfully employed, this would account for 7,387,000. But there are 11,500,000. Where are the other 4,113,000? Are they listed in this vast army of twelve to fourteen millions of unemployed or are they the forgotten children of America and not counted anywhere? I have not the data with which to answer the question, but if they are registered as a part of the unemployed this problem may be solved by education. Where are these four million children of high-school age who are neither employed nor attending school?

What are they doing? Is there any association between their idleness and the widespread crime wave of our country? Society should have long ago recognized that youth will be served. We have the choice between spending more money for education or more money for courts, jails, and penitentiaries, for, again I repeat, youth will be served. I cannot conceive a new deal for mankind without a corresponding new deal for the children of our nation.

One of the major problems of secondary education in the new deal is the instruction of youth in the constructive use of their leisure. If secondary education is to achieve results in this direction, it will necessarily give new emphasis to what the conservative, reactionary, and stupid people term fads and frills in education. Whenever this opprobrium is applied to that work of the schools designed to prepare children for the leisure they will assuredly have in the new deal, you may be sure it has been used by unthinking individuals who have not analyzed the problem or by selfish persons who are attempting to escape taxes.

If the citizen is to achieve the high purposes for which the new deal stands he will have to become both a more intelligent and a more active participant in the social order. The secondary school of the future will, therefore, be compelled to give increasing emphasis to government, politics, economics, sociology, and industry. These subjects will necessarily have to be interpreted to the adolescent student in terms he can comprehend. A zeal comparable to his enthusiasm for athletics and sports should be engendered. Contemporary civilization should be analyzed; the good idealized; the bad anathematized. Adolescence is a period of life when ideals can be most effectively planted in the minds of children. Advantage should be taken of this period to sow the seed of good government and give the youth a vision of the possibilities of a better social order.

As the schools of America have been of inestimable value in helping the nation to meet calmly and with fortitude the critical period thru which we have been passing, likewise the schools of tomorrow—more especially the secondary schools—will be the most potent of all social forces in bringing into existence the new deal with its potentialities for the social redemption of our people. The old order has been well served by the American public-school system; its contribution to the new deal will be of even greater significance.

MAINTAINING HIGH-SCHOOL STANDARDS UNDER PRESENT CONDITIONS

C. E. HINSHAW, PRINCIPAL, KOKOMO HIGH SCHOOL, KOKOMO, IND.

The economy wave which is sweeping the country is making it extremely difficult for the schools to function efficiently.

Already, the agitation carried on by certain groups in the interest of economy is having its effect. (a) Building construction has been practically suspended. As a consequence, thousands of pupils are attending school on a part-time basis, while other thousands are insufficiently housed. (b) Approximately, 100 city school systems have been forced to reduce their terms by

twenty or more days. (c) The teacher load has been greatly increased, thereby giving the individual pupil less personal attention from the teacher. This is due to an unusually large increase in the enrolment in high schools without a corresponding increase in the teaching force. (d) Teachers' salaries, always low, have been reduced to a point where the first signs of a revival in the business world will cause hundreds of our best teachers to leave the schools for more lucrative employment. (e) Libraries and school equipment have been allowed to deteriorate, due to lack of funds with which to make replacements.

What can be done to arrest this wave of false economy, so that the boys and girls of today may not be deprived of their educational opportunities? First, there is need for strictest economy in all school expenditures. These economies must fall most heavily upon those items which interfere least with the progress of the child's education. Second, we must resell the educational program to the public. We will never have any better schools than the people want. A desire for the best schools must be recreated. Third, there must be a re-vamping of our entire tax system. Local communities can no longer support their schools. The state and local community must join in this enterprise.

ORGANIZATION OF EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES IN THE MODERN HIGH SCHOOL

JOSEPH ROEMER, DIRECTOR OF INSTRUCTION IN THE PEABODY JUNIOR
COLLEGE—DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL, NASHVILLE, TENN.

In the growth and development of extracurriculum activities in high schools there is a growing tendency:

1. To place an "activities period" in the regular daily schedule.
2. To evolve a permanent system of office records and reports.
3. To devise means of measuring the "outcomes" of the program.
4. To organize a graded course of activities that will "lead on" from grade to grade.
5. To stabilize the programs by articulating them with the curriculum life of the school (intracurriculum).
6. To insist on teachers having definite and specific training in sponsoring the various pupil activities.
7. To centralize all matters of finance thru a system of internal accounting under one person, by means of a budget.
8. To eliminate "athletic abuses" by reducing all the major sports *thru competition* to their rightful place in the program.
9. To organize supervisory programs as in curriculum activities.
10. To devise a system of "checks and balances" thru some kind of a "point scale" whereby *balance* may be secured in pupil participation.
11. To require certain "credit for graduation" thus insuring a minimum social and moral training for all pupils.
12. To employ "directors" of extracurriculum activities.
13. To do guidance thru the extracurriculum activities.
14. To initiate some research work in the solution of many of the problems.

Department of Social Studies

THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES was formerly the National Council for the Social Studies and was created as a Department of the National Education Association by the Board of Directors at the Indianapolis meeting of the Association in 1925.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, W. G. Kimmel, 1004 Physics Building, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; *First Vicepresident*, Howard Wilson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.; *Second Vicepresident*, Edgar Wesley, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Bessie L. Pierce, Associate Professor of American History, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; *Board of Directors*: Erling M. Hunt, Assistant Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. (term expires 1934); R. L. Ashley, Head, Department of Social Science, Junior College, Pasadena, Calif. (term expires 1934).

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1926:653-663
1927:679-695

1928:651-654
1929:633-642

1930:597-606
1931:621-632

1932:525-532

THE INVESTIGATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS: THE FIFTH YEAR¹

A. C. KREY, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA,
MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

It has been customary during the past five years to have at this meeting a report of the progress which the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools is making. This is the fifth and last year of that investigation. By action of the Commission all fact-finding studies were to be completed by June 30. The committee appointed to sift that material for issues and recommendations to place before the Commission is now at work. The Commission is to meet in the fall and is to complete its deliberations before the close of the present calendar year. It is scheduled to make its report to the American Historical Association under whose auspices the investigation has been conducted at the annual meeting to be held this year at Urbana, Illinois, during the last week in December.

Such is the program which lies before the Commission during the half year which remains to it. Tho every year has presented its problems and its difficulties to the Commission, there is no member of that body who is not willing to admit that the half year which remains promises to be the most difficult.

Time and circumstance have exercised their sway over the work of the Commission as over so many other human affairs. It was the hope of the Commission that the various studies which were made for it should likewise be available to the teachers, administrators, parents, and general public interested in this field of instruction before the work was completed. This was contemplated as a means of enlisting the criticism, advice, and suggestions which might be of service in formulating its final recommendations. Only three of the studies have as yet definitely appeared—the first, a statement of the problem as the Commission saw it. Charles A. Beard drafted this statement for the Commission and it was published under the title *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*. The second furnished a background for the problem—*An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in the Schools*. This work was drawn from the vast knowledge of the history of the teaching of these subjects which had been accumulated during a lifetime by Henry Johnson. Compelled by time to forego a comprehensive history of the subject, the author succeeded nevertheless in touching upon an amazing number of its aspects in his brief exploratory survey and doing so in the vivid, sparkling, and incisive manner which is peculiarly his own. The third volume, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth* by Bessie L. Pierce, is likewise the fruit of much antecedent labor and reflection. In this work are set forth the educational programs of the more important and more typical public organizations which are concerned about the teaching in the schools. This material which in practise has often been so highly influential had never been brought together before where teachers and administrators

¹ Papers by R. M. Tryon, professor of the teaching of history, University of Chicago, and Ernest Horn, professor of education, University of Iowa, delivered before this Department at Chicago, are published in full elsewhere.

could view it as a whole. The author has been widely praised for the rare judgment displayed in selecting the important and typical from the more than 1000 organizations which she investigated and even more for the scholarly impartiality with which she has presented the views of these organizations.

Two other works are now in press. The volume describing the experience of the Commission with the new-type test contains the accounts of the various tests by Edgar Wesley, Mary Kelty, Marion Clark, Luella C. Pressey, R. M. Trabue, and A. M. Jordan. Truman L. Kelley who directed this work describes the methods used. The volume also contains a critical appraisal of tests as an aid to teachers of social science subjects, by the chairman of the Commission.

The volume on the service of geography to the social sciences is by Isaiah Bowman and includes supplementary studies by Edith Parker and Rose B. Clark. This volume brings together material and ideas in a way not touched by either geographers or social scientists and yet of intimate interest to both. This volume will be read with great interest by a wide audience.

The other volumes of the report now nearly ready for the press will, it is hoped, appear before the end of the year. C. E. Merriam has brought together out of the richness of his long study and intimate acquaintance with the political problems of the times a statement of the new civic education which teachers and public alike will read with interest and profit.

G. S. Counts, who has directed research for the investigation during the past year, has completed his vigorous and clear statement of the changed outlook of education in an industrial age. This will be of interest to all educators as well as teachers in this field. It likewise should appear early in autumn.

Jesse H. Newlon has made a study of the relations of the school administrators to the problem of the social studies and its teachers. This work brings together the fruits of many studies of schoolboards and school administrators and should help to give school administrators a new orientation in the social scene. It should likewise help the teacher to a fuller understanding of the problems which the administrators face.

The work of Merle Curti on the social ideas of educational leaders promises to be of great interest to educators, school administrators, and teachers as well as a significant contribution to the intellectual history of this country.

Bridging the gap between the administrator and the teacher, Howard Beale has made a study of the growth of tolerance in the teaching of the social studies. He has confined his attention to the schools, elementary and secondary. The problem has usually been treated at the university and college level. His work therefore constitutes the first systematic study of this problem as it appears in the schools.

L. C. Marshall has prepared for the Commission the most complete exposition thus far made of the process approach to social education upon which he has been working so many years. Those who have followed his work will welcome this extended treatment and all teachers, not only of social science, will find it stimulating.

The Commission has cooperated with the American Council on Education in supporting the experimental reading material project directed by C. H. Judd. Many in this audience are probably familiar with the six pamphlets which have already appeared and are looking forward to the others which are announced.

W. C. Bagley and G. S. Ford are preparing a volume on the teacher. This will include supplementary studies by T. Alexander, W. G. Kimmel, and others. Dependent as this work is upon the other phases of the investigation it will be among the last to appear.

Nothing has as yet been said about the two studies which deal most directly with the problems of the classroom—the curriculum and method. The two scholars to whom the Commission has entrusted the presentation of these vital topics are both to address you today. They will give you a fuller and clearer account of the problems which they have faced than I can do.

This résumé of the separate studies which the Commission plans to publish is only a part of the story. It leaves out of account the contribution which the thousands of teachers and administrators and officers of public organizations all over the country and some abroad have made in various ways. While each of the volumes will make some acknowledgment of this assistance this will represent only a fraction of the debt. I would like to take this opportunity in behalf of the Commission to thank those of you who have responded to questionnaires, submitted to interviews, undergone inspection, criticized manuscripts, judged tests, and written letters describing treatments of various problems. The character and quality of this report owe much to this help, more in fact than can ever be adequately acknowledged.

In the preparation of its final conclusions and recommendations which will constitute the last volume of its report, the Commission will draw not only upon the studies which have been here listed, and the supplementary reports which have been made to it, but likewise upon all the major investigations which have been made in recent years. The national surveys by our colleagues in other subjectmatter fields, mathematics, classical languages and modern foreign language have been used. More directly related to our work, the comparative *Study of Civic Training* published by the University of Chicago Press, and the reports of the International Committee on the Teaching of History are on the desks of all the Commission members; also the United States Census of 1930, the several surveys conducted by the United States Office of Education, the reports of the national commissions on law enforcement, child welfare, cost of medical care, housing, economic trends and most recently the social trends. With most of these investigations the Commission has had direct contact thru the active participation of its individual members. The published reports have furnished constant advice and guidance.

The appreciation and appraisal of this vast accumulation of records is a staggering task for even well-trained scholars. We can only hope that the Commission includes members of unlimited scholarly capacity who can embrace it all without losing a true perspective and balanced outlook on life.

We hope the Commission will be able to see our society whole despite this great mass of detail—all the more accurately because of the detail. We hope that, recognizing the demands of the growing youth in the schools, it will outline a program which will prepare that youth more adequately to grapple with the problems of society than we ourselves were prepared. That the Commission is fully aware of the challenge is certain, and that it meets the challenge with courage to do its best is equally certain. That its best will be equal to the task is a hope which it can only share with you.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

First Session, Monday Afternoon, June 29, 1933

The Department of Social Studies held a Joint Session with the Department of Secondary Education in the Lower Tower Ballroom in the Stevens Hotel. Attendance was limited to about 300 persons by the size of the room, with a large number of persons turned away because of lack of space in the crowded room. Sarah A. Stokes, Parker-Junior High School, Chicago, presided. The program was based on the Social Studies Section of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE CHANGING CURRICULUM OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

W. G. Kimmel, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Discussion Leader: Winfield L. Rice, acting director of high school civics, Public Schools, New York, N. Y.

A spirited discussion of various aspects of the social studies in secondary education, in which many persons contributed, concluded this program.

Second Session, Wednesday Afternoon, July 5, 1933

The program was devoted to the Social Studies Investigation sponsored by the American Historical Association. Approximately 350 persons were in attendance, with an estimated equal number turned away because of the size of the room. Papers included:

THE PROGRESS OF THE INVESTIGATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS: THE FIFTH YEAR

A. C. Krey, director; and professor of history, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

ONE HUNDRED YEARS OF HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

R. M. Tryon, professor of the teaching of history, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

THE PROBLEM OF MEANING IN READING WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Ernest Horn, professor of education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

Catherine Tierney, Supervisor of Social Sciences, Chicago Public Schools, described the Social Science Exhibit in Connection with the Century of Progress and the National Education Association.

A brief discussion dealing with the papers read, the different aspects of the Social Studies Investigation, the several parts of its Report, and allied phases, followed. The Report is published by Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Officers of the Department-National Council for the Social Studies—elected at its sessions held in connection with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association in Toronto, December, 1932—will continue to serve in their respective positions. (See historical note.)

Department of Special Education

APPLICATION FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT of a Department of Special Education was made at the Atlanta convention in 1929. A petition bearing more than 250 names was presented at that time. The creation of the Department was authorized a year later at the convention in Columbus.

In Los Angeles the group of teachers and administrators interested in special education met on July 2 and final plans for the creation of the Department were made and a constitution was adopted. The following officers have been elected for the year 1933-34: *President*, Lavilla Ward, Supervisor, State Department of Education, Madison, Wis.; *Vicepresident*, Florence N. Beaman, Montefiore School, Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Vesta Thompson, Haven School, Portsmouth, N. H.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1931:633-644

1932:533-542

ENRICHING THE LIFE EXPERIENCE OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

PAUL A. WITTY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY,
EVANSTON, ILL.

The stricture that special education for mental and physical deviates has consumed thru wasteful and elaborate expenditure, an unjustifiable part of our annual three billion dollar educational budget, is considered carefully. The writer finds a glaring inadequacy in the presentday provision for exceptional children; indeed, special educational opportunity for exceptional children is so rare and so inadequate as to appear ominous from the standpoint of social welfare. Of one million five hundred thousand gifted children in the United States, only about four thousand are placed in special classes wherein enrichment of the curriculum occurs. Similarly inadequate, if less important from the point of view of human progress, is the special provision for the mentally subnormal. The physically handicapped, too, are infrequently given special educational opportunity in our public schools.

The expenditures for all types of deviates are very low in terms of our total educational budget. The uncompromising fact stands out clearly: We have failed utterly during the past two decades to give adequate opportunity to atypical children in our public schools.

The situation for the gifted is lamentable, since these mentally superior children represent our greatest national asset. The writer recommends acceleration or grade skipping for this group as one practical way of effecting an adjustment which will result in providing mentally stimulating tasks and consequent growth. The social and physical needs of these children may be met by sifting children from several academic levels for group participation in physical and social pursuits. This recommendation is given force by a recent evaluation of forty studies of accelerated pupils in the elementary and secondary school, and in college. The investigation shows that acceleration is associated with desirable attainment in *all* types of adjustment for which data have been assembled.

Experiments are needed dealing with special education for exceptional children. In more than a decade of experimentation, we have developed astonishingly few enrichment programs in our public schools. The writer suggests some points wherein enrichment may mean a merging of life experience with worthwhile school endeavor. These include enrichment thru the language arts. Experimental data from two studies of gifted children are introduced to suggest a direction for efforts in encouraging free reading and in developing creative work in writing. Data are presented to demonstrate the significance of a continuously graded program in the fine arts which is designed to capitalize the artistic ability of talented children. Curriculum flexibility is stressed in order that children with special interests and abilities may have opportunity for varied expression and development. Plans are discussed for providing educational experience that will create leadership, and that will lead children to respect, to demand, and to follow the highest

type of leaders. The school is viewed as the great social laboratory in which individual differences are discovered and utilized in fostering maximum growth and development. The curriculum must be in keeping with the maturation levels of children in interest, in ability, and in attainment. Suggestions are given by which maturation levels may be more fully explored and utilized in developing true enrichment for exceptional children.

AN ENRICHED PROGRAM FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

BESS R. JOHNSON, PRINCIPAL, DAVID SMOUSE OPPORTUNITY SCHOOL,
DES MOINES, IOWA

Our consideration today is, What have we done and what can we do to enrich the program for handicapped children? Personally all my plans seem to come back to one great ambition: to help each child feel he is a normal boy or girl, or at least to say with the little elf man, "I am just as big for me as you are big for you." Instead of going into a theoretical discussion of an enriched program, may I tell you briefly of the things we believe have meant most in enriching the program of Smouse School.

Our school system as a rule does not permit Scout and Campfire work on school time, but since our transportation of crippled children makes after-school clubs impossible, we were allowed to have one hour per week for such activities. Outside leaders have organized and supervised Boy Scout, Girl Scout and Campfire groups, and we believe they have helped greatly in producing a more normal adolescent life for our boys and girls.

Our student council has been our most inclusive and most representative group. Representatives come from each room in the school, beginning with the first grade and including the deaf department. Affairs of state have been settled in a truly dignified manner. Teacher advisers have spoken only when requested to do so. It seems to me that physically handicapped children need this experience even more than normally healthy pupils. For so many years they have been told, "You may do this," "You should not do that." To be health-conscious and to make your own decisions is so different from being handicap-conscious and to have someone else make every decision for you.

School assemblies and all school programs give these children an outlet which many of them have never experienced. We have concentrated on one all-school spring program each year. A May fete gives such grand chances to dress up and to use many, many children. In the deaf department we found two children who danced beautifully, another girl who plays the piano well, and many of our crippled little folks love to cover braces with costumes and forget them in the joy of being somebody else.

Our occupational therapy we have crowded into our art program, unlabeled and unsung, but just as truly occupational and therapeutic. It has given the children an opportunity to create, and how they love it! Here equip-

ment makes the difference between theory and practise. A potter's wheel, a loom, and a jig-saw give a marvelous chance for muscle development for certain children who become so interested in the creation that they forget to be bored with the exercise. It takes a wise art teacher with the patience of Job to check on his children and give them individual work when he has so many individual differences to consider.

A wise teacher is also going to watch for chances to broaden the children's experiences by field trips. We have found parents who drive cars very willing to help take children on trips to such places as a farm, a flour mill, a fire station, a historical building. Where trips are impossible, vicarious experience by means of the splendid visual aids on the market today is valuable. If we can give our physically handicapped children a regular school program, surroundings conducive to good work, a broadened life thru extracurriculum activities, physio-therapy when needed, an enriched art program, well qualified and interesting teachers, I believe our pioneering will lead to something of which we may be justly proud.

AN ENRICHED PROGRAM FOR SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED CHILDREN

RUBY COUTU, DEPARTMENT OF CHILD GUIDANCE AND SPECIAL EDUCATION,
MADISON, WIS.

During our years of dealing with problem children in Madison it has become apparent that we must find some means of dealing with the maladjusted child within his own social group. We have felt that this can be done thru enriched curriculum and recreational programs. With this in mind we have made two studies, the results of which are being used in a definitely organized program for adjustment thru schoolroom activities. The first is a study of sixty-two children definitely known to be maladjusted, in which we have used recreational and extracurriculum group activities as the means of adjustment. The second is a complete personality study of every child in one of our fourth grades, undertaken in order that individual difficulties and maladjustments might be brought to light and dealt with by the classroom teacher herself. From these two studies certain facts stand out clearly. First, personality studies should be made for every child at the beginning of each year as a part of the school routine and should be used *by the teacher*. Second, social responsibility and desirable attitudes can be developed thru recreational interests including club work, classroom activities, and social programs. Third, we have gained from these studies some definite suggestions useful to the teacher in enriching the classroom program to help the socially maladjusted child. These suggestions include the project method of teaching, dramatics, art, literature, supervised recreation, clubs of various types, and citizenship programs.

Our general conclusions from these two studies are, first the need for personality studies of every child in order to locate and treat the problems of maladjustment, and, second, the value of schoolroom activities for such treatment. In any neighborhood populated by socially and economically underprivileged children we should advise the use of extra-school activities to help make needed adjustments outside the schoolroom. For schools located in areas where the general facilities for recreation are good, we feel that the problems of most socially maladjusted children can be adequately treated by the classroom teacher himself. Such a program will add very little to the teacher's tasks, and it will add much to the achievement and the enjoyment of his work.

WHERE ARE WE NOW?—A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

VIRGIL E. DICKSON, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS AND DIRECTOR,
BUREAU OF RESEARCH AND GUIDANCE, BERKELEY, CALIF.

The outstanding fact in the philosophy of education in this country is that every child shall have an opportunity for education suited to his capacity and his needs. We stress education for life values. The same criterion applies to exceptional children and to normal children alike. Each child must first of all be reasonably happy. He must then be helped to give to life that which is commensurate with his own abilities. Hence in evaluating our present practises of special education we need to ask ourselves: "What can this individual contribute to life and what joys can he get from life in the light of his capacities and the requirements of his environment?"

What, then, should education for the handicapped stress? Certainly it must be something more than vocational rehabilitation, important as that is. Nothing less than the whole life of the child is to be considered, and social and emotional values are preeminent in his adjustment. Most handicapped children will live under some degree of supervision and protection. They will be only partially self-supporting. They need to be trained, therefore, to live within a normal world, contributing their bit to the social structure without being expected to reach the level of attainment of their normal fellows.

To what extent shall we separate exceptional children into special classes or schools? As to the *gifted*, experience offers no conclusive evidence that these should be set off in special classes. I heartily approve of ability grouping within schools, but not of a special school for the gifted. My prejudice on this point is built primarily upon the behavior of parents of gifted children and of other adults, who destroy the fineness of social poise and service by overbearing pride and egotism. *The socially maladjusted* we do not wish to set apart unless it is absolutely unavoidable. We give them clinical treatment in school, at home, or in a foster home if the home is impossible, and last of all within an institution. *The speech defective* we do not separate from other children save for the amount of time needed for training in speech cor-

rection. Most of their work they carry on with normal children in regular classes. *The mentally deficient* are educated both in separate schools and in units within the regular schools. In a recent survey made of large cities 62 percent of such children were reported as being cared for by the latter method. If they are not to be placed in institutions (and only the most serious cases need such treatment), then they should certainly be kept in contact with ordinary life situations to as great an extent as possible. *The blind, the deaf, and the crippled* must have special method and equipment, but they too want normal life contacts and should be provided with such associations as far as it is possible for them to profit by them. *The cardiac, pretuberculous, and anemic* we separate for the time being into special classes, but our policy is to get them back into normal groups as soon as possible.

After all, we come back to the individual attention for individual needs. Consider how the child varies from other children. Teach him to compensate for his handicap and to express and to use his powers to the maximum. Teach him how to get along with other children. Most of all, teach him how to be reasonably happy. If this is done he will share life's values as well as do the rest of us who are not supposed to be handicapped.

SPECIAL EDUCATION IN GERMANY—WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM IT?

GERTRUDE ROSER, INSTRUCTOR IN SPECIAL EDUCATION, MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, YPSILANTI, MICH.

Special education in Germany has grown from 1893, when 32 cities were training 2290 mentally retarded children, to the point in 1927 when 3966 classes made up of 71,902 children were being maintained in 750 cities. Centralized schools are preferred there rather than special classes distributed thruout the regular schools. A very real and alert social consciousness of special education exists in Germany. The public recognizes the necessity of the work. Much of this feeling can be traced to the early work of the medical profession, the first group to enter the field.

Vocational work is emphasized in German special schools. Other subjects, such as arithmetic and nature study are correlated with the vocational subjects. Field trips are strongly advocated and widely used. In all the schools teachers correlate the work of the classroom and the shops with situations which these children encounter in out-of-school life. A large amount of hand work and shop experience is given wherever possible. Gardening, due to its importance in the everyday life of Germany, receives much attention. Practically every school has its garden with a plot, however small, for each child. Since he has exclusive care of that plot a sense of pride and responsibility is fostered. Some of the gardens are quite pretentious and are serious projects. Aside from planting and cultivating, drainage, soil culture, and other phases of gardening are taught. Thus a wide range of training may result from one project.

Special teachers in Germany are on the whole much more thoroly trained than in this country. The psychology of the special school, pathology, physiology, and research methods are some of the subjects studied. Special examinations in addition to those given for regular grade certificates are required of special school teachers by most states. At first many teachers did the required reading and studying at home and took the examination when they felt prepared. Some universities later offered vacation or extension courses dealing with special class methods and problems. Now it is generally advocated that the teacher desiring to enter the field of special education, study for one year at one of the Heilpädagogische Instituts.

It is quite evident in Germany that the special education system is based upon the teacher. Thoroly trained and aware of the individual needs of the child, the first aim is to mold and develop each to his fullest capacity. Even working with limited equipment the teachers have used the material at hand to attain their ends. Experimental teaching projects now being conducted in Germany carry out still more completely theories of teaching based on the intellectual and emotional characteristics of the individual child.

ARE WE PLAYING FAIR WITH THE PERSONALITY PROBLEM?

EDWARD H. STULLKEN, PRINCIPAL, MONTEFIORE SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

Work with a group of 1800 problem boys enrolled during the past three years in the Montefiore School of Chicago indicates that one of the most important problems in school adjustment is that of the personality deviate. Personality is built upon a physical foundation, and some physical defects, especially glandular disturbances, contribute strongly to the development of undesirable personalities. The mental development also plays an important part, and much of our mass education with its closely graded systems and its overcrowded classrooms is unable to handle the complex problems of securing better integration of the personalities of those children who deviate even slightly from the rank and file. The adolescent age with its attendant emotional instability is a particularly important time in the development of personality. Studies of home conditions of poorly-adjusted boys indicate that there are many social and economic factors operating to increase the difficulties facing the school in its attempts to play fair with the personality problem. No single factor in attacking the problem is greater than that of the personality of the teacher. School administrators must remember that teachers are human beings and that they have personalities quite as much as the children and that the clash of pupil and teacher personality is fraught with possibilities for good or evil.

Work with problem children indicates the necessity for complete case studies of each individual child, including facts as to physical, mental, emotional, social, economic, and personality traits. A complete study of the whole child is a necessity whenever personality difficulties are involved.

Since the school's problem cases are present and persistent, they often cannot wait for the delay of referring them to social agencies outside of the school. If a school is fortunate enough to have its own social workers, it will be possible to give to the child the immediate study and individual attention he needs. Work at the Montefiore School shows that the school's social worker because of her knowledge of social work can often stimulate other agencies into action when teachers and principals fail to do so. Then, too, action can be speeded when the school thru its case study can say to an outside agency that the problem is a pressing one and that there are psychological moments which must be seized if the case is to be benefited by treatment. In no case can any adequate attack be made upon the problem without a complete understanding of the whole complex life of the individual child.

BETTER COORDINATION OF SERVICES FOR PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED GROUPS IN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY PROGRAMS

LAVILLA WARD, STATE SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL CLASSES FOR DEAF, BLIND, AND DEFECTIVE OF SPEECH, STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, MADISON, WIS.

School program—The development of education during the past few decades based upon the recognition of individual differences has made a place in many of our public-school systems for special classes for physically handicapped children, thereby promoting opportunities for better educational and social development. In the progressive schools of today, in which the need of the individual child is the primary objective, special classes may become an integral part of the school, regular and special teachers cooperating to meet the needs of the children. Special class children have their recesses with the regular classes. With guidance and help in preparation from a special teacher it is possible for many of these children to do much of their work in the regular grades. They may enter high school for the academic course or take a modified course in prevocational training. The vocational guidance department may make a study of each child and direct his industrial and vocational training along lines in which he shows aptitude and in which it will be possible for him to work.

All special classes for physically handicapped children in public schools are nominally under the direction of the principal of the school. However, in order to bring about a real coordination of services, not only the principal but the superintendent and supervising teachers must be interested sufficiently to give guidance and active support. In systems in which this is true there is no difficulty in getting children transferred to special classes, with the exception of the occasional objection of parents. Teachers not only receive with interest and understanding the children from the special class but they become alert to the manifestations of the various defects and constantly refer children to the special teacher. It becomes a give and take proposition on a 50-50 basis.

Community program—Of first importance is the cooperation from various clinics in physical diagnosis, treatment, and guidance in emotional adjustments. Until very recently the medical profession on the whole has concerned itself chiefly with the medical problems these cases presented along with their deviation and correction. Now it is beginning to realize a responsibility in recommending special education when it is necessary. Of second importance is the coordination of activities in the various service and welfare organizations such as the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts. Many of our children who are deaf, hard of hearing, and defective of speech belong to the Junior Y groups, especially in athletics and in some educational and health activities such as dramatics and dancing.

All arrangements made in the regular public schools should be carried on with the objective of serving physically handicapped children on an equal basis with normal children. The plan of leaving the children wherever possible in the normal environment of home and community is invaluable. Their adjustment as members of the social body is best promoted by their participation in the activities of the normal social group. It is our belief that a fuller and more complete life is thus made possible for physically handicapped children.

THE MENTAL DEVIATE—A PROBLEM IN CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENT

FLORENCE N. BEAMAN, MONTEFIORE SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

An experiment in curriculum development for mentally deficient children carried on in public day-school classes has yielded some pertinent facts concerning curriculum content and its method of application. This experiment, conducted for the past four years at the Montefiore School in Chicago, sought to develop material based upon the following factors: (1) the future life needs of mentally retarded children as revealed by research data on vocational pursuits and social adjustment in the community; (2) the effect of selected material upon the wholesome development of all phases of the child's make-up; and (3) definite emphasis upon experiences designed to contribute to the commonly needed social development. The education of the experimental group was concerned with two aims, namely, broad general experience in social activities and specific training in habits and skills. Physical needs, academic needs, vocational needs, and social needs were all taken into consideration.

Provision for a preliminary period of observation to determine the social status of each pupil was made. A rich environment was provided in a room equipped with all types of sensory-motor material with which the children could play with freedom. During this period the teacher observed the reactions of the individual, the predominant social interests of the group, the child's motor facility, and the resourcefulness of the individual in creating enjoyment out of his own environment. Immediately following the short period of observation an elastic program was built upon social activities,

including story-telling, folk games, folk songs, folk dances, and simple group construction projects. Dramatics, excursions, and parties were introduced as the children showed growth in social participation. Then, too, came social science projects which had bearing upon necessary academic achievements. The program of academic material evolved concerned itself with the direct needs of the group in carrying on the immediate project.

The Montefiore experiment utilized all methods consistent with good educational practise. The general procedures used may be summarized as follows: (1) provision for a period of free activity for the child, in which he attempts to orient himself in his environment; (2) inclusion within the child's experimental activities of a carefully planned program of devices to stimulate his sensory activity; (3) provision of time for the child to observe and to integrate his experiences so that they will serve as a foundation for the processes of higher learning; (4) continual strengthening of perceptual experience thru concrete situations; (5) intensifying of concrete experience thru classroom aids, such as visual education, books, and teacher instruction; (6) correlation of all experiences and integration of school and life experience; (7) provision for specific remedial work in the avenues in which the child is weak.

In this experiment close contact was kept with the home and its problems. The clinical facilities of the school were utilized to the utmost. Doctor, dentist, nurse, visiting teachers, truant officers, psychologists, and psychiatrists all contributed liberally to the adjustment of these atypical pupils. The curriculum evolved and the methods utilized in its administration have proved a partial solution to the problem of meeting the needs of children of retarded mentality.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

First Session, Monday Afternoon, July 3, 1933

The business session of the Department of Special Education met after the regular program with Elise H. Martens, president, presiding. The constitution of the Department was read for information of those present.

Motion was made and carried to authorize the chair to appoint a nominating committee and a resolutions committee, same to report Wednesday, July 5. The nominating committee was also to name a representative to the National Council of the N. E. A.

The president was authorized to transmit a letter to the Department of Lip Reading, inviting that department to affiliate with the Department of Special Education. There being no further business, the meeting adjourned until July 5.

Second Session, Wednesday Afternoon, July 5, 1933

The second session met in the spacious quarters of the North Assembly Room, Hotel Stevens, to better accommodate the extremely large representative group assembled. Elise H. Martens, president of the Department of Special Education, called the meet-

ing to order. A splendid program was presented that centered about classroom and teaching problems, appealing to the various interests of the entire assembly.

The first speaker of the afternoon was Virgil E. Dickson, assistant superintendent of schools, Berkeley, California. His subject was: "Where Are We Now?—A Critical Evaluation of Special Education." Mr. Dickson said in part: "We are engaged in a great pioneer work. These children, under our special direction, namely: the blind, deaf, cripple, epileptic, speech-defective, mentally retarded, and behavioristic, *have a right to be reasonably happy*. . . . We must teach them how to cope with life situations, how to feel, think and act; teach them life values that will compensate them for their handicaps. They must learn that 'what you give to life is what life gives to you.' "

Gertrude Roser, training supervisor, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich., the second speaker, chose for her subject: "Special Education in Germany—What Can We Learn from It?" Miss Roser spent considerable time in Germany studying their methods in that field. She gave a resumé of the progress of special education in Germany from the seventeenth century to the present day. Miss Roser went on to say that "in the seventeenth century children segregated for special education were classified as the mentally sick. Medical authorities lent invaluable aid to the teachers of Germany in this work. Germany favors special schools rather than rooms in regular schools. These schools serve a central area. There is no uniform program. Their aim is to develop self-supporting individuals, equipped with desirable habits and abilities to cope with life situations."

"Are We Playing Fair with the Personality Problem?" was the next subject of Edward H. Stullken, principal, Montefiore School, Chicago, Illinois. He said: "Everyone has a personality, more or less. The bad boy, however, often has the greatest personality. There is a definite relationship between poverty and delinquency—physical defects and personalities. The school must make compensation for these conditions, and the teacher's personality is one of the greatest factors in this respect, and extremely important."

"First of all, the teacher must be calm, well poised and sympathetic. Above all, he must be impersonal in relation to himself, but very personal in relation to his pupils. His discipline must be firm, yet kindly."

Lavilla Ward, supervisor, State Department of Education, Madison, Wisconsin, fourth speaker of the afternoon, presented: "Better Coordination of Services for Physically Handicapped Groups." She said: "We must regard the physically handicapped child as a potential asset rather than a liability." She advocated constant daily drills, using acoustic exercises in the correction of speech defects to be given by well-trained, competent instructors. During playground activities she suggested that these children should not be segregated, but should participate with the regular class children, insofar as they were able. Miss Ward emphasized the fact that co-operative clinics were most desirable. The essential objective was the physical well-being of these children. Specific skills and habits should be developed that would tend to help them make social adjustments and thereby live in a happy, respectable way."

The last speaker on the program was Florence N. Beaman of the Montefiore School, Chicago, Illinois. Her subject was "The Mental Deviate—A Problem in Curriculum Adjustment." Miss Beaman passed out charts of special class curriculums and showed methods of adapting and modifying subjectmatter to the capacities of special class children. She offered the following program: club period—two hours fundamental drills, story-telling, music, lunch, dramatics, individual instruction, creative work.

At the conclusion of the program the business meeting and election of officers took place. A series of resolutions drawn up by the Resolutions Committee was pre-

sented by Virgil E. Dickson of Berkeley, Calif. It was moved and seconded that these resolutions be accepted and adopted.

The Nomination Committee presented a list of nominees for executive officers for the ensuing year. They were then elected by oral vote. The result was as follows: president and representative to the National Council of Education, Lavilla Ward, supervisor, State Department of Education, Madison, Wisconsin; vicepresident, Florence Beaman, Montefiore School, Chicago, Illinois; secretary-treasurer, Vesta Thompson, Haven School, Portsmouth, New Hampshire.

A rising vote of thanks was tendered those who prepared the excellent program for the convention, and to all those who contributed in any way to the success of the meeting.

It was announced that Mr. Dickson would conduct a round-table discussion, dealing with questions or problems with reference to different phases of special education. All who desired to remain were invited to take part in the discussion at the end of the meeting.

The session then adjourned.

Resolutions

- I. We express our sincere appreciation to those who prepared the programs and to those who contributed.
- II. The Department of Special Education of the National Education Association, recognizing the excellent work done by the International Council for Education of Exceptional Children, wishes to cooperate with that organization in every possible way in advancing our common aims and purposes.
- III. We ask the Executive Committee of the Department of Special Education to plan ways and means of furnishing to us and to the general public information on phases of development and matters of interest in the field of special education. Abstracts of speeches in these sessions are illustrative. We suggest that space be secured in the *Journal of the National Education Association*, if possible.
- IV. We ask the Executive Committee to secure, if possible, a place on the series of radio programs, conducted under the auspices of the N. E. A.
- V. We suggest that the program committee consider requests for the organization of sectional conferences in the annual meetings of this Department. The sections, if allowed, shall follow in general the classification of special groups, as designated by the White House Conference. However, in order to secure desirable cooperation and coordination of all of these groups, at least one of the sessions shall be a general conference embracing all sections.
- VI. The Department of Special Education appreciates the tremendous inspiration and help that has gone to the workers and the public in all sections of our country thru the published bulletins of the Office of Education, and thru the services that have been carried on in the interests of the education of exceptional children. We recommend that a letter of appreciation for these bulletins and for this service be sent to the commissioner of education, to the commissioner designate and to the Secretary of the Interior by the secretary of this Department.
- VII. WHEREAS, For the past three years the urgent need of a careful survey of the problems affecting the education and welfare of handicapped and gifted children has been emphasized by various educational and social organizations of national and international scope; and

WHEREAS, These various organizations have at their annual meetings passed resolutions asking that such a survey be undertaken under the direction of the United States commissioner of education and that the necessary funds be appropriated therefor by the Congress of the United States; and

WHEREAS, The seriousness of the problems involved has in no way diminished but has rather been increased thru the period of economic stress; therefore be it

Resolved, That the Department of Special Education of the National Education Association reiterate the request that, as soon as economic conditions may permit, such a survey be undertaken under the direction of the United States commissioner of education, and that said commissioner be asked to request the Congress of the United States to make an appropriation of funds needed to carry on such a survey; and be it further

Resolved, That a copy of this resolution be forwarded to the President of the United States, Franklin D. Roosevelt; Secretary of the Interior, Harold L. Ickes; United States Commissioner-designate of Education, George F. Zook, and to those members of Congress who have manifested an active interest in the welfare of exceptional children.

Finally we recommend that the Executive Committee consider the advisability of placing this last resolution before the General Resolutions Committee of the N. E. A. next year.

Department of Superintendence

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE was the outgrowth of a meeting of the National Teachers' Association in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, 1865, at which time the state and city superintendents present decided to form an organization of their own. Final action was taken in Washington, D. C., in February, 1866. The new organization was called the National Association of School Superintendents.

In 1870, the National Association of School Superintendents merged into the National Education Association as a Department. In 1921, the Department was reorganized and a fulltime secretary employed. It publishes a report of its annual meeting and a yearbook which are sent only to members.

The officers of the Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.; *First Vicepresident*, Milton C. Potter, Superintendent of Schools, Milwaukee, Wis.; *Second Vicepresident*, David E. Weglein, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.; *Executive Secretary*, Sherwood D. Shankland, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: Charles B. Glenn, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Ala. (Term expires 1934); Herbert S. Weet, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y. (Term expires 1935); Carroll R. Reed, Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minn. (Term expires 1936); Charles S. Meek, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio (Term expires 1937).

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1873:244-271	1887:509-538	1900:183-296	1912: 329-497	1924:803-961
1874:297	1888:513-543	1901:189-348	1913: 99-354	1925:633-862
1875:291	1889:611-613	1902:151-305	1914: 133-291	1926:665-838
1877:253-261	1890:365-542	1903:139-300	1915: 253-525	1927:697-871
1879:223	1891:379-525	1904:173-332	1916: 895-1099	1928:655-830
1880:235-236	1892:559-743	1905:155-270	1917: 661-845	1929:643-802
1881:252	1894:252-592	1906: 29-214	1918: 473-683	1930:607-770
1882:Pt.II:1-112	1895:213-429	1907:145-327	1919: 483-673	1931:645-800
1883:131	1896:231-392	1908:129-312	1920: 407-536	1932:543-677
1884:283-292	1897:195-316	1909:159-330	1921: 679-849	
1885:160-191	1898:303-488	1910:143-306	1922:1295-1464	
1886:333-350	1899:251-379	1911:161-329	1923: 881-1024	

GENERAL SESSION, MONDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY 27

The Challenge of the New Frontier

THE CHALLENGE OF THE PRESENT ECONOMIC
DEPRESSION

HARLEY L. LUTZ, PROFESSOR OF PUBLIC FINANCE, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY,
PRINCETON, N. J.

The keynote of this convention is the new frontier of American life, and in this opening general session we are asked to face the challenge of the new frontier. A frontier is a borderline between the known and the unknown, the new and the old, the established and the experimental. In a fundamental sense there are always new frontiers, and we are never free from the challenge which they present.

The present economic depression has flung its challenge into our faces. It has temporarily interrupted our economic and social advance. Despite our earlier achievements, we are once more vividly conscious of the economic frontier, and we are directly challenged to show that we still have the individual and social qualities that are required for dealing successfully with adverse frontier conditions.

My present discussion and application of the challenge which the depression presents is necessarily limited to certain outstanding, typical issues. These are: first, the challenge to our capacity to function as a democracy; second, the challenge to our sanity and our common sense; third, the challenge to our organizing capacity; fourth, the challenge to our financial capacity; and fifth, the challenge to our provincial nationalism. In a very real sense all of these are embraced in the first, the capacity of our democracy to function during a crisis.

The capacity of democracy to function is not challenged only by emergencies. On the contrary, this capacity is continuously challenged. Depressions and other emergencies reveal and emphasize the defects of the democratic method; but we must admit that this method, as we have applied it, has not been conspicuously efficient.

The reason for this inefficiency is clear enough. The democratic emphasis upon individual rights and freedom necessarily prevents a steady advance toward a fixed goal, regardless of obstacles. The ultimate objectives of the national life, aside from that of money-getting, are vague and uncertain. Having no clearly defined goal, we naturally do not see clearly the road to it. More than this, the essence of democracy is that the people are assumed to determine, ultimately, the national policy. Quite apart from the vagueness and uncertainty as to what this policy should be, the participation of all adult citizens as equal members of a self-governing group involves popular decisions on complicated issues and requires a higher level of general knowledge on difficult subjects than in fact exists.

The truth is that democracy is postulated upon idealism, for only an idealist would assume that all citizens are equally well-qualified to make

wise laws or to serve competently in any office from that of President down to that of justice of the peace. We have been incorrigible idealists here in America, and we have occasionally wandered from the road into the ditch, as any star-gazer is likely to do. If we bruise our shins, we must accept it as part of the price of star-gazing. A dictator could probably herd us down the middle of the road. No one would fall into the ditch except those who were thrown there by the dictator; but none would see the stars, except by his gracious permission.

Let us grant, then, that the democratic method is that of trial and error. We know that it has been expensive, but we tolerate and even encourage governmental extravagance during prosperous times, altho we complain bitterly against it during hard times. The challenge to all of us who believe in this method is to reduce the margin of error and to introduce some rational means of controlling the cost, while preserving the essence of the democratic ideal. I propose for your consideration two steps which involve no sacrifice of this ideal, but which would materially diminish the fumbling and groping that have hitherto characterized our governmental procedure.

The first step is the recognition of the distinction between the determination of policy and the administration or execution of policies after they have been established. Policy determination belongs to the people, for this is the substance of government by the people. The execution of the policy, which is the substance of public administration, should be left to expert administrators. For example, the question of a new school building is one of policy, and the people have the right to decide such a question. The details of construction are not a matter of policy, but of expert administration. The people have the right to decide whether algebra or Latin shall be taught in the schools, but they are not competent to determine how these subjects shall be taught.

The few instances in which this basic distinction between policy determination and administration have been faithfully observed, notably some of the cities under the manager plan, represent our highest practical achievement in democratic government. But by and large, we have not adopted this principle. The Congress, the state legislatures, and the city councils, all of which are policy-determining bodies, are continually interfering with administration. They decline to recognize the need of unhampered, expert administration. In consequence, we do not get as good results under our democratic procedure as it is possible to get.

The second step is the recognition of the need and the value of scientific research in the governmental field. A report recently made by the Twentieth Century Fund reveals that 102 foundations gave \$54,600,000 during 1931 for various public purposes, but of this amount, the grants for governmental improvement were only \$869,000, or 1.6 percent of the total. Only eight foundations were sufficiently interested in government, or sufficiently unrestricted in their purposes, to contribute to this purpose. Without criticising the interest which these organizations have displayed in health, medicine, and education, it is appropriate to suggest that the de-

votion of larger sums to intelligent governmental research would contribute immeasurably to the better functioning of the governmental agencies. It should be noted, also, that government itself devotes almost no money to the support of research in governmental problems, aside from the occasional special investigating commission.

In order for democracy to function as efficiently as it is possible for this type of government to operate, it must have the benefit of external, impartial, scientific criticism. At present we lack the agencies and the facilities for this service. We cannot safely rely upon the press, since the press lacks the facilities for obtaining the data by scientific methods, and it inclines more and more toward the partisan rather than the scientific viewpoint. We cannot rely upon official reports, since it would be unreasonable to expect public officials to pass critical, unbiased judgment upon their own work. Obviously we cannot rely upon popular intuition, unaided by such a knowledge of facts and conditions as can be obtained only thru the collection, analysis, and interpretation of complex factual data by rigidly scientific methods.

Some of the bureaus of governmental research have served this need for particular communities, altho the quality of their work has been variable and not always sufficiently high for the purpose. An opportunity of the first magnitude for the foundations, for the great universities, and for any philanthropist who desires a worthy object for his support, is the definite promotion of scientific governmental research, with the objective of informing and educating the people upon the matters of policy which they must decide.

While it cannot be said that we have proved democracy to be completely successful, it does not follow that we have utterly failed. Beyond doubt we can improve it materially, if we are willing to accept some of the devices which will unquestionably improve its operation. These measures of improvement are the more important during a severe economic depression, when the people have become a suspicious and panic-stricken mob, when the facts in the situation are so complex as almost to defy orderly analysis, and when the populace visits political retribution indiscriminately upon the deserving and the undeserving. The depression challenges us to show that we have the qualities of which an enduring democracy is made.

The social psychologists have long been aware of the force of the social group, and of the ease with which group impulses induce an abdication of the reason in favor of the emotions. Our growing social solidarity, resulting from population increase and the extensive facilities for communication, compels us to reckon more and more with the psychology of crowds or mobs. We are constantly challenged to fight for our individual sanity and common sense against the pressure of the mob mind. During the years 1927 and 1928 we had to fight against the emotional appeal of fabulous riches and the assurance that a new era had come, in which panics were to be no more. Today we must fight to preserve our individual sanity and common sense in face of the mob sentiment that all is lost, that our insti-

tutions cannot survive, that the world is headed for social chaos. Democracy is continually challenged by this emergence of the mob spirit. If we would successfully control ourselves during adversity, we must learn equally to control ourselves during prosperity, for the excesses of one period inevitably lead to the excesses of the other.

The present serious conflict of debtor and creditor interests illustrates the point. A tragic incident of the depression is that thousands of persons have lost their small equities in property thru mortgage foreclosure. But in very many cases the original ghastly mistake was made by the lenders, in the days of prosperity, when they loaned without caution, upon inflated values, upon utterly indefensible estimates of continued earning capacity, simply because money conditions were easy. Fortunately the creditor interests, under the leadership of the great insurance companies, are acting now to correct the suicidal folly of wholesale foreclosure proceedings. It remains to be seen whether they will go further in recognition of their equality of guilt with the borrowers in creating a mortgage debt situation which has now become intolerable.

The historical record of economic depressions indicates that they recur with more or less regularity. Each generation reacts and behaves under the impact, however, as if the current catastrophe were as unique and unparalleled as the Flood. Our fathers lived thru a severe depression after 1893, and our grandfathers lived thru a severe depression after 1873. They had their false rumors and alarms, their economic ghost stories, and they encountered the unreasoning fear complex. The historical parallel should suggest, not fatalism but resolution in holding fast while the storm blows. All of our experience reveals that this storm will pass. Our sanity and our common sense are challenged to carry on in that spirit rather than yield to demoralizing fears.

Anything that challenges a quality of which we have boasted as much as we have over our organizing ability, touches us on a very tender spot. Our great industries, our vast system of transportation and communication, our far-flung commerce are the evidences of our genius for organization. Our overblown pride in and our unceasing advertising of this ability have seemed almost justified by the results. It is no accident that in the eyes of all Russians, Henry Ford is the greatest of all great Americans.

Perhaps it is a tribute to our organizing capacity that there should be after nearly four years of depression, as much economic activity and employment as we now have, altho the available estimates of unemployment ratios indicate a higher proportion of employable workers out of work in the United States than in other industrialized countries. The core and essence of our problem is in the fact that some millions of our able-bodied citizens lack employment and the means of selfsupport. Whether the fundamental difficulty be overproduction or underconsumption need not now detain us. The fact which we cannot escape is that we have this enormous amount of unemployment. We also have vast resources, many idle factories, and great quantities of foodstuffs rotting on the farms or being sold at ruinous prices for lack of buyers.

Here is a most direct and definite challenge. Thus far, we have responded to it emotionally rather than rationally. That is, we have elaborated plans for relief in order to spare ourselves the national reproach that any should starve in the midst of the plenty that surrounds them. We have taxed, and borrowed, and campaigned for private contributions. We have created great corporations and provided them lavishly with funds for relief and rehabilitation. But thruout we have sought to solve the problem of emergency relief and unemployment by compelling those who remain at work to carry the unemployed instead of emphasizing the development of means whereby the unemployed could again support themselves thru their own work. While our relief efforts are the very highest tribute to our sympathy and charity, and to our recognition of the underlying bond of our human brotherhood, they are a serious reflection upon our intelligence and our organizing capacity. They constitute at best an oblique rather than a direct attack on the unemployment problem. They emphasize the disposition, already too much in evidence, to lean heavily upon government instead of upon individual initiative. A colleague of mine, Professor Frank D. Graham, has outlined the essentials of a program whereby the unemployed workers and the idle factories may be brought together for the support of the otherwise unemployed workers themselves. Since these workers would be supporting one another, they would not affect adversely the ordinary market and price situation, nor would they be competing with those who still have employment.

Fortunately, the essential principle of this suggestion is already being applied in hundreds of communities. Barter exchange has appeared from one end of the country to the other. It is solving the problem of existence for between 500,000 and 1,000,000 persons, and it is accomplishing this result by providing the opportunity of working. Workers and capital goods, otherwise idle, are being brought together in the normal economic relationship. The plumber with the toothache and the dentist with a leaky bathroom have discovered that money is not essential to an interchange of services. In many places scrip and certificates of different sorts have appeared, however, to facilitate the direct exchange of goods and services.

In endorsing this movement I am not arguing against government aid or leadership, but rather for a broadening of the emphasis in the relief program. Public funds are unquestionably necessary, and will probably continue to be necessary for some time to come. The dispensing of government aid, however, involves no *quid pro quo*. The recipients get the relief, in cash or in goods, with neither the incentive nor the obligation to render an equivalent in return. Whether we continue the dole system until it becomes entrenched as a vested right, or embark upon a stupendous program of public works, the funds for supporting one-third of our people must come from the diminished income of the other two-thirds, unless we also recognize the fundamental necessity of enabling the unemployed to help themselves.

The barter exchange movement will probably flourish best if it develops from below. That is, it should develop locally and not by an act of Congress

or a state legislature. But it does need and deserve encouragement, general recognition, the kind of publicity and promotion that can come only from the endorsement and support of prominent business leaders and public officials. If the state relief organizations were to devote some of their effort to the promotion of the local nuclei of the barter exchange movement, and to securing its acceptance on a wider scale thru the coordination of the separate local units, they would be emphasizing the return to normal economic processes, and they could eventually lessen their demands upon the working members of the community. What is vastly more important, they would thus contribute to the preservation of the morale and self-respect which can be sustained only by giving an equivalent in labor for one's means of support.

Here is a challenge to organizing capacity which comes home to every member of this audience. You can, in your several communities, aid or lead in the formation of local barter exchanges, and in the integration of these units as they appear, and thus strike a body blow at the depression.

The depression brings its peremptory challenge also against our financial capacity. We must face it in the field of private finance, and as well in the field of government finance.

One theory of the depression is that it is primarily financial, and not economic, in character. It is held that in an economic, as distinguished from a financial sense, our situation was never better. We have an immense capital equipment, used only in part. We have a large number of available, well-trained workers. We have a surplus of foodstuffs and raw materials. Moreover, the health of the people is good. While there is some under-nourishment, it has not yet become so serious as to bring outbreaks of the diseases characteristic of prolonged dietary deficiencies, such as scurvy and beri-beri. The nation's death rate has never been lower in the history of our vital statistics. On the other hand, our financial condition is said to be deplorable, and our troubles are laid mainly to this condition.

But looking at the facts of our financial equipment and resources objectively, it is apparent that financially as well as economically, the country is in excellent condition. True, there are sections in which the proportion of bank failures has been heavy, indicating the need for higher standards of bank management and regulation. Relatively the heaviest losses from bank failures occurred among the small weak state banks not associated with the Federal Reserve system. Viewing the country as a whole, however, our financial situation seems quite as favorable as our economic situation. The Federal Reserve banks have enormous resources; the member banks have almost no indebtedness at the Federal Reserve banks; on the contrary, they now have large excess reserve deposits. Both the Reserve banks and their member banks are in a highly liquid position. The decline in bank deposits has been checked, and some banks are discouraging further savings deposits. The loans to brokers are now negligible in amount. The Federal Reserve note issue has risen to about two and three-fourths billion dollars. The re-discount rate is favorable and member bank discount rates are easy. All in all, the banks were never in better condition to support active business opera-

tions than at present. In fact, we have a favorable economic situation and a favorable banking situation. What prevents the two parts of our economic machine from meshing?

If one could really answer this question he would have a fairly complete explanation of the phenomenon which we know as a depression. It can be asserted with some confidence, however, that the explanation is in substantial degree psychological. Our economic and financial machinery are out of gear because, as a people, we have yielded to the mob mind, we have lost something of our sanity as individuals, we have accepted at face value every wild rumor and every economic ghost story, however grotesque or unreasonable they may be.

The Federal Reserve Board's calculations of the velocity of deposit currency circulation demonstrate the congealing effect of the fear complex. From 1923 to 1925 the total volume of bank deposits turned over from 26 to 32 times annually. By 1929 the velocity of turnover had risen to 45, but in 1930 it had declined to 30, and in the last quarter of 1932 to 16. The temperature of our economic system has been dropping to absolute financial zero.

How or where the fear complex is to be broken, no one can say. On more than one occasion in the past a recovery of commodity prices has been the signal, and there is no question that a positive upward price movement now would go far toward the restoration of confidence. Our greatest difficulty is the lack of certain and comprehensive knowledge, and the absence of an impartial, scientific agency for supplying information on vital economic matters, free from the taint of propaganda or commercialism. I have suggested a way of getting unbiased information of this kind for the people, as an essential aid to the better functioning of democracy. I insist that we would do better to set about the establishment of such an agency or agencies than to wait for some providential event or the off-hand, happy inspiration of a super-man.

In the field of government finance we are challenged to establish reasonable and rational control of the cost of government. A demonstration of our ability to deal with this problem would go far to quicken public confidence, as well as to lessen the restrictive influence now exerted by enormous tax loads.

I can indicate here only a few of the fundamental elements in expenditure control. In the first place, we must simplify and coordinate our governmental structure. Proposals in this direction have thus far met a solid wall of resistance. After twenty-five years of discussion and agitation by Professor Merriam, Cook County and Chicago remain one of the horrible examples of chaos in local organization. Two years ago we surveyed and described the conditions in New Jersey which harked back to the "horse and buggy" age. We were complimented on the reports, but there was no further response. The sacrifice of efficiency to political expediency in the efforts to reform the federal organization are well known.

In the second place, we must learn to adjust our financial plans and programs to the exigencies of the business or economic cycle. A review of the federal financial policy, for example, reveals that it has been established, apparently, upon the assumption of an indefinite continuance of prosperity. The revenues of each year must cover all of the expenditures for the year, regardless of their character or of revenue conditions. The federal expenditures for the fiscal year 1932 included nearly a billion dollars for capital improvements and advances to provide the capital funds of relief corporations operating in aid of self-liquidating enterprises, but these capital expenditures were not segregated from the current expenses in announcing the deficit for the year. This was unnecessarily confusing and alarming, for it implied a more serious condition of the federal finances than in fact existed. It is one thing for a family to run behind on the grocery bill, and quite another for it to show a deficit because a house has been bought with borrowed money. Similarly, it makes quite a difference to imply that the federal government cannot meet its current expenses, as distinguished from the enormous expenditures for capital purposes.

Again, the Treasury during these years borrowed the money that was paid into the sinking fund for the retirement of debt, thereby increasing still further the nominal deficit. Borrowing to pay off debts is an exceedingly slow way of financial salvation. Our plight must be desperate indeed when we throw this kind of make-believe baby to the wolves of financial chaos.

A further evidence of the extent to which our federal finances have been geared to the assumption of indefinite prosperity is found in the record of the federal revenue system. After 1921 the federal revenue base was steadily narrowed. Indirect taxes were eliminated or reduced; the income tax rates were reduced, while the ridiculous capital gain and loss provisions were retained; the states were given an 80 percent credit against the estate tax; custom tariff rates were advanced with the deliberate intention of excluding imports and thus of drying up this source of revenue. It is small wonder that the Treasury finds itself embarrassed during a depression for which the federal revenue system made absolutely no provision.

In the third place we must learn how to determine, by independent methods, what the government services ought to cost, and how to make adjustments in these services when it becomes necessary to effect retrenchments. In order to do this, we must develop standards for determining the quantity and the quality of our governmental services. Further, we must establish an acceptable priority in these services, as a procedure for securing the most effective retrenchment at least social cost, if and when a severe reduction of public expenditures becomes necessary. In some states we now have the spectacle of the schools being closed for lack of funds, while the expenditure of funds dedicated to highway purposes continues with little or no abatement.

Our new economic and social frontiers are international as well as national. It was conclusively established in 1914 that an apparently local event in an obscure European village could lead to worldwide complications. We did nothing in 1914 to aid in preserving the peace of the world, and we are

doing our best to pussyfoot around most of the powder and lighted match situations which now menace it. We are ready, evidently, to throw the Philippines into the lap of Japan. We have lost much of our influence in South American affairs. We have steadily refused to join the League of Nations and give to that organization the support which it needs and deserves in its efforts to maintain sanity in world affairs.

We have even been blind to our own immediate, selfish economic interests. We have refused to recognize our position as a first rank creditor nation, by making it impossible to realize on our own foreign investments in the only way by which foreign debtors can pay, namely thru a larger volume of world trade. We have encouraged great export industries, only to find their products excluded from foreign markets in retaliation for our own excesses in tariff rates. Now we are supporting the employees of these industries by the dole. Our farmers are losing their farms and burning their wheat for fuel; but the Food Research Institute at Stanford University informs me that for some time Germany has had a law requiring a certain proportion of potato flour in all bread, while in some other sections of Europe the bread is worse than it was during the darkest days of the war.

It is incomprehensible that anyone could contemplate the economic growth of the forty-eight states of our union, comprising as they do the largest free trade market in the world, and not appreciate the advantages to be gained from a freer movement of goods in international trade. It is equally incomprehensible that anyone should, in the face of this evidence, give support to the proposals that have been advanced in some states for boycotting interstate exchange of goods and seeking to make one state economically independent of the others. Such proposals are strong evidence of sheer economic illiteracy. They may well stand as a warning against the amount of economic superstition and witchcraft that yet abound. They reveal that the desert and mountain country of our economic frontiers are not to be too easily traversed.

However lengthy the catalogue of the dangers and difficulties that may lie before, it should not discourage us. The early pioneers knew about the hostile Indians. They knew of the *Jornado muerte*, as the Spaniards called the dry crossing on the Santa Fe trail. They knew of the toil over the mountains. If they were not discouraged, shall we, who have benefited so much from their sacrifices, admit our fear or our inability to face the challenge of our own times?

THE IMMINENCE OF SOCIAL CHANGE, THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY ON A PRICE SYSTEM OF PRODUCTION ¹

HOWARD SCOTT, NEW YORK, N. Y.

A century ago in this country we had a population of slightly over 12,000,000. In the next 100 years that population grew to where it is now over 122,000,000, an increase of tenfold in the century. In 1830 we were consuming in this country less than 75 trillion British thermal units of

¹ Stenographic report, not edited by author.

extraneous energy per annum. In 1929 we consumed slightly less than 27,000 trillion British thermol units of extraneous energy, an increase of three-hundred-fifty-three fold in the century.

Back at that time the first Tom Thumb railway locomotive was introduced, a little perambulator on wheels, driven by steam. We have gone a long way from there to the K-1 and the Diesel electric for our motive power on modern railroad transportation.

On the Rutherford Division of the Reading Railroad thirty years ago we were hauling 1100 to 1200 tons, with a six-man crew, and making that run in sixteen to twenty-four hours, stopping to coal and water twice. We doubled that tonnage in the next thirty years, but in 1929 and 1930 the K-1 type came in. We now haul 7500 tons with a five-man crew and make the run, without stopping to coal or water, in four to six hours.

The same progression is witnessed in practically every field of human endeavor, whether it is glass bottles, shoes, steel rails, tin cans, textiles. The acceleration of technological procedures is increasing in time.

Our population, as I have pointed out, increases, as we say, as the square of time; all production increases as the cube; debt as to the fourth, and consumption of energy to the eighth power in time. Therefore, you are building up a national situation which, reduced to simple terms, means that you are increasing your productivity and your debt faster than your population, and are putting your goods in "hock" faster than you produce them.

In this century of progress thru which we have just passed, we have seen probably the most astounding development of material invention, discovery, and its application in the social world. We have now reached the point where our productive capacity of this country is so huge, if operated at a continuous load factor, that we possess no possible means, under a price system, of distributing sufficient purchasing power to distribute the products and services of that physical mechanism. At the same time that we have created the most magnificent producing equipment in the history of man, we have also run up the most terrific debt load of any social structure, over \$218,000,000,000 of debt claims against the physical equipment of this country. Our unemployment is now over 15,000,000 which means, of course, that we have 40,000,000 people without any visible means of livelihood. We express it in an engineering way that the man hours per unit produced are declining as T to minus fourth, so that you will witness a further and further substitution of energy for man hours as technological procedures progress.

Under a price system, that means further complications. We are vainly trying to seek solutions for the burdens and loads already placed upon our social structure. The solutions are many and varied, that is those that are offered. But they fall within the category of cure-alls, in that they deal mostly with balancing the budget, sound money, political legerdemain, and financial chicanery.

Under a price system you only create monetary wealth when you create debt; you possess nothing of value unless it constitutes a debt claim against

the community or social system in which you live. In the creation of debt, naturally your primary interest is in building up a greater and greater pile of debt on which to expect annual accruals. So that our national income, under a price system, is therefore, represented by the total amount of debt claims in existence.

Seventy-six percent of all large incomes are reinvested in industry. There has to be reinvestment in industry or it could not expand. In order for that to continue, industry would have to expand 5 percent per annum, or more, in order to act as a reservoir for the annual accrual from the debt certificates of large income holders.

When you stop to think that one man produced relatively little a century ago, and 150 years ago his production had not altered very much from that of 5000 years ago, we technologists point out that social change did not occur from Pericles until James Watt. By that we mean that the rate of doing work was practically constant or, as the physicists would say, socially we were in a steady state of doing work.

Man, while possessing a high metabolic efficiency of almost 40 percent, nevertheless has a low rate of output, equivalent, on the average, to 1,500,000 foot pounds per eight-hour day, or about equal to the output of a one-tenth horsepower electric motor.

The Watt engine, in its maximum size, multiplied the output rate of the human being 234,000 times. That maintained up to the late nineties. Today we have engines of conversion of 300,000 horsepower, or 9,000,000 times the output rate of the human being; 8,776,000 feet of this rate occurred since the year 1900.

In the machine exhibit of the textile industry last week was a machine that would turn out 54 square yards of knit silk per machine, per hour. One man can tend to four such machines. That output is a 600 percent increase over 1920, and 300 percent increase over 1930. One man is capable now of doing over 1600 square yards of knit silk in an eight-hour day.

When you contemplate that in 1929 this country produced over 22,000,000,000 tin cans in that year, and that Campbell Soup Company, the largest consumer of tin containers in the world, used up 500,000,000 cans to can their tomato soup alone, you see that the order of magnitude of our industrial problems has reached such a point that you cannot think in terms of local areas or villages, counties or states; but you must consider the problem from that of a continental order of magnitude.

When Colonel Drake punched that 200-foot hole thru the earth's crust at Titusville in 1859, he started another progression. Up until now we have drilled slightly less than 900,000 oil wells in this country and produced approximately 15,000,000,000 barrels of oil. In 1900 we produced 63,000,000 barrels of oil, and by 1929 we had reached 1,000,000,000 barrels per annum.

Of course, in order to continue such rate of production, we would have to discover oil, that is potential reserves, at the rate of 1,300,000,000 barrels per annum in order to produce 1,000,000,000 barrels for use.

All of these things bring up questions of how we are going to handle ourselves in the very near future. The manner of arriving at decisions from the time of Pericles to today, socially, has not changed. We still do it on the basis of counting noses, quite contrary to the method used by the scientist, technologist, and engineer in the determination of any functional sequence.

From the data at hand, it appears that we cannot long continue to handle 1,000,000,000 installed horsepower of prime movers in this country, the tremendous producing capacity that we have, with the old system of control, and the old system of evaluating human beings and of distributing purchasing power upon the basis of individual participation of man hours.

Technocracy points out that if the total producing equipment of this continent were operated at a continuous load factor of the most efficient equipment now available, not depending upon that which may be invented but that which is in existence today, that it would only require of adults between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five, 660 hours of effort a year; and that would guarantee livelihood until death. But you could take a holiday and retire after you are forty-five and still draw your income.

In other words, what the engineer is trying to point out today is that the political equality, religious freedom, and civil rights were all right when our forefathers adopted the Constitution of this country, but they adopted that Constitution in the days of ox-carts, spades, and other obsolete equipment. Today we have reached a point where it is not necessary, and it is quite futile to discuss the social structure and social function in terms of subjectives.

Technology has proceeded so far that for the first time in the social history of man, this continent, under a technological control, can guarantee security to all inhabitants of this continent, from Panama to the Pole and Hawaii to Bermuda, guarantee a security until death; and a quality of income so high that you would have considerable difficulty spending it within the allotted balance load period for which it was issued. We cannot go on very much further because we are going to witness more moratoriums, both of mortgages and of our general financial situation; and as more moratoriums are declared, the freezing process, of course, spreads; and as the freezing process spreads in one field, other fields will demand that their assets also be frozen in order to have self-protection.

All of this leads to a more tenuous and a more striking condition than faces us even now. All discussion of sound money is being indulged in by those who will benefit by inflation. We have been in a deflationary process since the so-called debacle. In that deflationary process we have been liquidating and writing down, and then there was the customary process of mopping up. But those people forgot that when you conduct a deflationary process upon a large scale, you wipe out millions of prospective customers, and what you liquidate and foreclose on, ceases to be an asset and becomes a deficit.

Inflation, of course, is only a temporary palliative. To you of the educational industry, it will be merely another deflationary move; and to all people who draw salaries, wages or small incomes, because you cannot obtain currency fast enough, nor have you sufficient credit to go into debt. Therefore, the purchasing power of what you receive will be deflated in proportion to the inflation, by the time you receive it; that is, inflation is a process of deflating the worker, the salaried man, the professional man, you might say, the entire middle class. I only have to point to Germany to show you the effects of what happened there in the process of inflation.

I should like to touch upon another side of it. The scientist, the technologist, and the engineer have been changing the functional sequences or the technic of the means whereby we live in this country, and will continue to do so. We are substituting extraneous energy for man hours on the basis that 1,500,000 foot pounds equals eight hours of any man's time. That is a process, a progression, which, once started, is uni-directional and irreversible. By that we mean that you cannot go back to pre-machine or pre-technological ways of life.

It took ninety-six man hours to spade an acre of land. The tractor does it in .088 man hours, or over 1000 to 1. There are similar ratios in the combine. We would like to see you go back to the old method of making shoes or bottles. Today, with the requirements which we have, a machine will produce 64,000 gross in twenty-four hours.

Cigarets in the last three years have jumped from 560 a minute to 2600 a minute, yet that is but a drop in the bucket to what could be done. There is no reason to suppose that we could not achieve within the next twenty years almost as great an acceleration as we have in the last thirty; but it cannot be done under this system because you have no means of distributing the purchasing power sufficient to keep the physical equipment running, without throwing it into oscillation from peaks to very low valleys. In 1893, taking the curve of pig iron, we dropped around 21 percent; in 1907, slightly over 30; in 1920, over 50, and today, over 80. I am trying to point out here that the oscillations are increasing in frequency and in amplitude of time as they do. As they do increase, therefore, it becomes socially more unstable.

We have a structure, of course, where we elect everybody, on the basis of popular acclaim, from geographical divisions, without any regard to the functional capacity of either the individual or of the changing capacity of the country.

The technologists of education, you might say, are the fabricators of the conceptual equipment of human beings with which they deal with the physical world. It is thru that conceptual equipment or conceptual furniture, if you like it better, that the human being deals with this physical equipment and functional sequence which the engineer has set up. The engineer, in changing these functional sequences, has up till today worked like everybody else, because he had to; his main concern was doing a good job, and he hoped that at the same time his boss or his corporation would

continue to improve. The scientists and technologists and engineers have given no concern until lately. Science has been a matter of the cloisters, something in which you indulged and poked around with at your leisure in the universe, wherever and whenever you felt like it. Due to our creation of energy-consuming devices, we have built up an objective for science, an objective which we cannot in any way avoid or desert, and that is the capacity of any given area of the world's surface to operate the maximum number of energy-consuming devices in that area in time.

Copernicus, Galileo, and others removed man from being the center of the universe and placed him on a rotating globe, rather distant from the center of the universe. Darwin came along with Weismann, Haeckel, Mendel, and proved that man was kin to all other organic life. We technologists wish to point out that man is not only kin to other organic species but he is kin to every energy-consuming device, whether it be organic or inorganic; and that the rates of growth of energy-consuming devices on a particular area are of fundamental importance to any social structure. They have risen to a point in this country where we can no longer go on juggling the debt pieces in the new deal and hope to get anywhere. We have to determine how many energy-consuming devices are going to operate on that area in time, at what factor of efficiency, and at what load factor of operation.

This means, of course, that it can only be done under a form of technological control and not under a hit-and-miss, laissez-faire theory of get-what-you-can-when-the-going-is-good. So we say to the educators that new conceptual equipment must be devised to take care of the changing rate of functional sequences, a new technological idealism, if you wish, which for the first time holds forth a concrete and finite objective for this continent, an objective not stated in philosophic preconceptions but in terms of functional results. In other words, I think that it is time and that we have sufficient energy resources, mineral resources, soil, and precipitation. We have the greatest personnel in the matter of trained technologists and engineers, over 400,000, and over 4,000,000 competent mechanics capable of operating the greatest array of producing equipment ever at the disposal of man. The educational sequence is even larger in numbers. Therefore, it is only a question of time, if present conditions continue, when all those of functional capacity, whether they be in a health department or an educational division or in a steel plant, will be called upon to operate the productive and distributive facilities and services of this continent.

Technocracy, therefore, proposes that there be entente between those of the educational field, those of the scientific and technical field of this country, and all others in labor and in industry of functional capacity. We must realize that the day is not far distant, at the trends we are now traveling on, when we shall be called upon to decide these issues, not on the basis of the shuffling of debt pieces, not on the basis of foreign trade or of international war debts or the League of Nations, but of men and things in this country. You cannot laugh off 15,000,000 unemployed and 40,000,000

people on the verge of a bread-line. At the present trend, it will not be long until you have 20,000,000 unemployed.

This is not a message of doom or chaos; far from it. To us, it is a message of hope. For the first time in a century, the human beings on this continent are being compelled to have lucid intervals. If it were not for the starvation and deprivation, I would say another three years would be even more beneficial. But the only thing about that is we are running too close to where the oscillations make it so unstable that we have interruptions.

From that point of view I should like to point out that this change is coming whether we like it or not; whether we assist or not. Like all periods of change, you can take one of two attitudes: One, as a fabricator of conceptual equipment, is attempting to devise conceptual equipment and furniture that is capable of dealing with these changing conditions. If you assume that attitude you will be moving forward, we hope, comparable with the rate of acceleration. The other attitude is to adopt the shabby tolerance of liberalism and proceed to straddle the fence in defense of an obsolete and outworn piece of junk known as the price system. What happens in the second case is that the intellectual liberal can never make up his mind. He is afraid of a decision. He is always looking for a man on horseback, that is he will be thought to be a man on horseback by the general public, but he does not really want a man on horseback for himself; he wants a moron on a jackass.

There are those two alternatives facing you today. The second one is probably easier, safer, and less arduous, up to a certain period. After that it is quite different.

I may point out that Kerensky was one of the great liberals of Russia. He finally went out of Russia in the uniform of a common sailor, in the automobile of the American embassy, bound for a foreign country. I may say that on this continent, if conditions ever reach such a point, there will be no other country to migrate to. It will be rather hard to get off the continent. So that you are faced with the proposition of either providing an objective for the youth of the new America, and, at the same time, security, by which all of the human values may be released; or, if you adopt the other attitude, the youth of today, the adults of the new America of tomorrow, will hold you responsible, those of you who straddle that fence in defense of that piece of junk, and may God have mercy on your soul!

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF MODERN TECHNOLOGY

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The American system of education was built not alone on the faith of the people but on wealth created by modern technology. In the confusion of these chaotic years one fact stands out sharply, clearly discerned by all who have eyes to see the direction in which the powerful currents of con-

temporary life are moving. We shall have more, not less, education in America. Schools and other educational agencies will be greatly expanded. Where a million teachers are required today, two million professional workers in education will be required tomorrow.

It is a fact of profound significance that our system of free public education had its origin a hundred years ago when the industrial revolution was gaining its first great momentum in America. In the two decades that witnessed the first railroads, the appearance of the reaper, the sewing machine, the rotary press, the electric telegraph, and many other notable inventions, and the rapid extension of steamship lines and factories, the great battle for free public education was won. The development of schools kept pace with the conquest of the continent, the opening up of its great natural resources, and the development of its industries. The twentieth century demands many highly skilled technicians and a very high level of technical and social intelligence among all the people. As Mr. Howard Scott has pointed out, the ox cart is of simple design and even a stupid person may drive it. The Twentieth Century Limited and the airplane are of complex design, and only highly skilled pilots of steady nerve can safely drive them. Roadways for automobile traffic must be constructed with mathematical precision. The political and economic system of Jackson's day were relatively simple. Today political and economic processes have become so vast and so complicated that they are manageable only by the most comprehensive and expert knowledge. Indeed, the threatened collapse of our economic system is obviously due to a lack of the intelligence and character which its operation requires. If we cannot supply this deficiency, then we must confess utter defeat by the machine. Technical knowledge commensurate with this social task must be supplied. Education, indispensable to industrialism, has not kept pace with social change.

With elementary education compulsory, over half of the youth of high-school age are today in secondary schools. More than a million are enrolled in institutions of higher learning. Attendance upon secondary schools continues to increase even in depression years. Tens of thousands of high-school graduates, unable to find employment, are returning for postgraduate work. What is the meaning of all this? It means that the same technology that demands for its operation an abundance of expertness and a wide diffusion of knowledge makes the labor of these youth for productive purposes not only unnecessary but impossible. Mr. Roosevelt has accepted 3,000,000 as the best estimate of the number of unemployed in the last year of prosperity, and the new President believes a return to the prosperity of the late twenties will see five million now unemployed still without work, so amazing has been the recent advance in labor-saving processes and machinery. Effective utilization of technical knowledge and the energy resources of this continent can have but one result, an enormous increase in the flow of commodities and a decrease in the requirements of man power. Productive labor by the young and the old will not only not be required but the hours of labor of all workers will continue to decrease. Universal education in schools or

elsewhere to age twenty and an extensive program of adult education requiring the cooperation of innumerable cultural agencies are as inevitable for this country as tomorrow's sunrise. What this extensive educational program will be we cannot now predict in detail. It is sufficient for our purpose to establish clearly this educational implication of modern technology.

If there still be doubting Thomases, let them not forget that no other nation is so nearly self-contained and so rich in agricultural, mineral, and actual and potential forest resources. Surely no people is more energetic and industrious than the American people schooled in the traditions and adventure of the frontier. Modern technology with its marvelous process of continuous mass production—the amazing force that evokes rich crops from the soil and transmutes raw materials into consumable goods—must be accounted one of our greatest resources. Surely there is no reason for pessimism or despair in America. We have only to use these resources. It is high time that we eradicate the ignorance and curb the selfishness that stand in the way. Science must be made free to work its wonders for the benefit of all. Unless these great resources can be harnessed to the general welfare, democracy will become a hissing and a byword.

Government in America is today in many respects as little suited to a complex urban-industrial civilization as the transportation system of Washington's time would be to the conditions of today. Government activities have been tremendously expanded. In some departments government is efficient. In most areas it is confused and incompetent. In the improvement of productive processes Americans are radical. We think nothing of discarding a process or a machine, or tearing down a great building, to make way for a better machine, a more effective process, or a larger and more convenient structure. With regard to political ideas we are most conservative. Government today is creaking under the pressure of powerful forces with which it was never designed to cope, but in political affairs we are afraid of change. As Professor Merriam points out in the report on *Recent Social Trends*:

In business and in mechanical enterprise the general attitude has been that of free and welcome experiment, but the opposite has been true in governmental affairs, where the weight of tradition has been more heavily felt and where proposals for change have been identified with treason to the state.

National, state, and municipal governments need to be reconstructed to cope with modern conditions. Many of our administrative units and procedures belong to the age of the stage-coach and canal boat, and not to the age of the airplane and radio. The slow process of piecemeal repair may be totally inadequate to prevent virtual if not complete collapse. Why should we hesitate to take bold measures in political affairs? Constitutional conventions are needed. Professor Merriam quotes this sentence from the report of the famous Lusk Committee of New York state:

No person who is not eager to combat the theories of social change should be entrusted with the task of fitting the young and old of the states for responsibilities of citizenship.

Such a doctrine is nothing short of a social menace. Technology places upon the school the responsibility of education for orderly social change.

Our economic ideas largely derive from a period that antedated modern power machinery. Production has become corporate. "Competition, the life of trade" does not fit modern conditions. It does not take a highly sophisticated economist to see this. Indeed some economists seem unable to understand it, bound as their thinking is by old formulae and stereotypes. The American people need to understand the economic concepts and ideas pertinent to the machine age. Our antiquated economic machinery has got to be revamped. Engineers assure us that if all our technical knowledge were applied, poverty could be banished and an abundance of goods supplied for all. Away with the notion that teachers must keep silent with regard to these conditions known to all men! It is time for discerning men and truly patriotic citizens to speak their minds.

All this assumes that we still wish to accept the old American ideals of equality of opportunity, of social and economic justice, in a word—democracy. The democratic principle demands that no individual or group be exploited by another individual or group. It certainly demands a more equitable distribution of the national income. The conditions of poverty under which millions live today are simply intolerable under American ideals. Many conceive democracy to be a form of government. They lose sight of its deeper moral and social implications, while they cling to the mere forms of government as though they were the realities. The right to cast a ballot is of little value to a man who is utterly unable to find a job. There are millions like that today. To them political democracy must seem a horrible illusion.

But who shall control and direct technology? This is an educational and social problem of the deepest import. The answer to that question will give direction to all education in the future. In the beginning it must be emphasized that the factor of safety is very narrow. The overturning of an ox cart was not a serious matter. If the Twentieth Century Limited is derailed, much damage is done. The margin of safety in the management of government affairs was very large at a time when the social and economic system was relatively simple and virtually static. The limits of safety in the direction and control of our delicately balanced social system are very small indeed. The efficient operation of this system demands the highest technical competence, but Americans have been afraid of expertness. In government they have worshiped at the shrine of the great god, Mediocrity. They have fervently acted on the belief that one man is as good as another. In the moral realm and in social relationships this doctrine is the very essence of democracy. But its application in the affairs of government and in the management of our industrial system can mean only disaster. Government, industry, finance are too largely controlled today by men lacking in professional competence, vision, and social ideals. The consequence is maladjustment, stagnation, depression. Americans must learn the importance of expertness in all departments of life. This means nothing short of the

transformation of one of the most deep-seated prejudices in the American mind. We must acquire the same respect for expertness in the social realm that we have for expertness in the scientific realm.

The technicians who are to direct important social processes must be controlled. We cannot dodge this problem of control. It is the most fundamental problem in American life. Democracy we accept as basic; but social and economic democracy, not just the husks of governmental forms long since impotent to cope with the problems of the industrial age. We must, then, apply the principle of expertness and the principle of democracy. This means planning and it means the control of industry for the general welfare. The educational implication is patent.

Another social implication with important educational bearings must be considered. The western peoples are passing from an economy of scarcity to an economy of plenty. Industry, thrift, many of the old virtues will be less and less applicable to the world which we are entering. The social problems connected with an abundance of leisure will be tremendous. What values shall be esteemed? For what purposes shall the productive capacities of the new society be used? What social and institutional arrangement will best serve the good life? What will constitute the good life in the age of plenty?

When we ask what are the educational implications of modern technology, many possibilities come to our minds. We may think of the use in the educative process of such instruments as the radio, sound pictures, and other mechanical devices. Tho they can never afford a substitute for individual experience, for study and patient inquiry, these technical appliances may work a revolution in educational method. The radio has knit the whole nation into one community. It is a powerful instrument for molding the public mind, tho a dangerous one. But other implications are more fundamental. As I said in the beginning, education will be universal to age twenty, and thruout life, for that matter. Life will become one long process of education. The secrets of the universe and of life will be pursued relentlessly, and the frontiers of knowledge will be pushed farther and farther back. Education to do one's part in production will be important, but education for living will become relatively of far greater importance in the age of plenty. Two years ago former Ambassador Gerard startled the country with a list of some seventy men, who, he said, controlled America. Education was conspicuous for its absence from that list. But it will not be so when we decide to employ technology for the common good. Then education will occupy an important position in the councils of the nation. Education for living will be the most important business of society.

There are other and more immediate implications. We do not as yet know how to get from where we are to our utopia. The transition—that is the big problem. If we follow our present policy of drift, even greater disaster will surely overtake us. We are unable to cope with the problems of industrialism and of the great world society created by the machine because the people and most of their leaders still think too much in terms of

economic individualism. Our immediate task is to give youth and the entire adult population understanding of the twentieth-century industrial society in which they live. The content of education must be the social concepts and ideas of today and tomorrow. The curriculum of the school must be reconstructed and focused upon contemporary American life. Teacher training and the study of education must be redirected in the light of these changed conditions. Nothing is needed so much today as thousands of adult discussion groups scattered thruout the nation engaged in the study of the social and economic problems that technology has brought to us. In the remaking of American life, education must take its place as one of the great creative forces in society. It is a vital function of a complex, dynamic, swiftly moving social order.

When we consider the plight of education today in the light of the facts of modern technology, we see how irrational and short sighted is the present orgy of needless budget cutting. This is the time to spend more, not less, on education. The need for social and economic understanding is desperate. The president of General Motors boasts that his great corporation is spending more on research in 1933 than in any year in its history, and yet we have an industrial plant that has scarcely been used to half its capacity and that is operating today at one third or one fourth its capacity. The tragic need of the times is to master the machine. That is the business of politics, and it is the business of education, for education can never be disassociated from our political and social ideals. American education has long thought primarily in terms of the individual. Technology is forcing it to think in terms of the great society. The times cry out for education for a new, humane society in which all adults will have economic as well as political security. If the million teachers in the country, loyal Americans all of them decide that technology must be used to serve mankind, they will have a host of allies.

Have the American people lost their courage? Have our souls shriveled? Have we become so puny that we cannot undertake bold measures? I will not believe such an imputation. We need in America today the realism, the courage, the vision of the Fathers, something of the spirit of 1776 and 1787. I believe that spirit is still alive. Men are thinking deeply today. They will not always tolerate a situation in which men and children go hungry in a land of plenty. American life will be remade as it was in a previous generation. Education must teach men how to control the powerful forces which technology has unleashed.

With our population stabilized at approximately 170,000,000, as it will be in fifty years, technology can make the American dream of well-being and happiness for all a reality. Childhood and youth will come into their rightful heritage. They will live in comfortable and convenient homes of pleasing design opening out on alluring vistas in beautiful cities designed for the habitation of men, or in the charm of the open country. Generous provision will be made for the health and physical well-being of everyone. Large play spaces will be provided in the cities, while all will have access

to the wild places of the open country. Lovely schools will look out upon pleasant parks. Industry, exchange, government, the arts, social processes and institutions, the rich life of the community will become truly educational for all. With his essential needs supplied, every individual will share fully in the good life.

Such an America, once but a dream, is now within our grasp. Will the educational forces of the country accept the challenge?

THE SWORD OVER EDUCATION

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I was very much attracted by the repeated use of the word "frontier" in this program. I liked the sense of adventurous advance that it connoted, and yet, since this program was fashioned, the economic and financial plight of the country has become increasingly serious until today, as Mr. Potter suggested (he did not quote me quite accurately; he never does), I feel much more like speaking about education in a collapsing world than of education for a changing world. Educational leadership today is not so much in the position of having to decide how it will move to the next frontier as to see to it that the stockade on the present frontier is not wholly captured by the Indians.

A sword hangs over education thruout the United States. To prevent this sword from sinking to the vitals of the whole enterprise of education, builded of the blood and sacrifice of pioneers, will demand the utmost of statesmanlike cooperation between the leadership of school and the leadership of society. This sword that hangs over education is but sign and symbol of the peril that confronts all of the social and cultural enterprises of our common life in this phase of unprecedented depression thru which we and the world are passing.

I want to state, with the utmost brevity, just what this peril is and to define, if I can, the problem it puts alike to the leadership of school and to the leadership of society.

The sword that hangs over education and the other social enterprises of government is the sword of imperative retrenchment forged in the fires of an irrational depression. The peril lies not so much in the existence of the sword as in the way we wield it.

That economy, drastic beyond anything we have been accustomed to think, is imperative in the conduct of local, state, and national affairs no intelligent man will question. Since 1929 our income has gone steadily down and outgo has gone steadily up in its relation to income. The expenditures of local, state, and national government, when related to the toboggan slide down which the national income has raced, have bent the back of the American people. Either the back must be strengthened or the burden must be lightened. For a nation cannot long endure a consistently falling income and a consistently rising outgo.

It is confessedly a critical situation that confronts us. In 1931 Americans were putting slightly less than one out of every four dollars of the national income into the enterprises and obligations of local, state, and national government. When the books of 1932 are fully balanced, we shall probably find that at least one out of every three dollars of the national income went into the enterprises and obligations of government. According to the analyses of the National Industrial Conference Board, in 1928 approximately 11 percent of the national income went into taxes, whereas in 1932, it was estimated some months ago, some 33 percent of the national income went into taxes to carry the enterprises and obligations of government.

There are those who would have us believe that this dramatic rise of the tax draft on national income from 11 percent to 33 percent in four years is due solely to an unintelligent and unjustified, a wasteful and worthless, development of the public services of organized government. That lie must be nailed at the outset unless public thinking on the scientific, social, and educational enterprises of government is to be gravely muddled and grossly misled.

The man in the street, hearing of this rise in the tax draft on national income from 11 percent to 33 percent in four years, is all too likely to think that the cost of the public services of government has trebled in that time. Obviously this is not true. Had the national income remained steady at the 1928 level, the tax draft on national income for last year would probably have stood at not more than 18 percent instead of 33 percent, even if all the extraordinary expenditures incurred by depression had been in the picture. The factor that lifted the tax draft on the national income to 33 percent was the dramatic drop in the national income due to the economic muddling that landed us in depression.

I am quite aware that this does not remove the stubborn fact that a 33 percent tax draft on national income is a serious matter with which political, social, and economic leadership must wrestle. It does suggest, however, that the blame for the large proportion of the national income now going into taxes cannot justly be placed upon the shoulders of social and educational leadership, but must, to a very material degree, be placed squarely upon the shoulders of the economic leadership that proved incapable of steering our economic ship past the shoals of depression.

And now this very leadership that has done most to unbalance the nation's life is insisting that we shall balance the nation's budget by plunging a sword into the heart of all those scientific, social, and educational enterprises to which alone we can look to produce a leadership for the future that will be less inept, a leadership that might conceivably use this magnificent machine economy of ours to free the race from drudgery, poverty, and insecurity instead of letting it starve like Midas in the midst of plenty.

I, for one, protest the current attempt to make educational leadership the scapegoat for the sins of economic leadership!

Unless this fact is kept clear we shall see an uninterrupted increase in a propaganda that will, with insulting scorn, brand even the most self-sacrificing public servants as greedy and grasping payrollers. This now popular

propaganda, if persisted in, will divert men of capacity and self-respect from public service for a generation to come. And it will be our children who will pay the price of this diversion.

The most pressing problem now confronting educational leadership is the problem of imperative economy. The gravest peril now confronting educational leadership is the peril of irrational budget-making. Educational leadership will be derelict to its duty if it permits economic leadership, without let or hindrance, to do what it will with local, state, and national budgets. I do not believe that the leadership that led us into depression has earned the right to speak with final authority on the budgetary policies most likely to get us out of depression.

Because education's gravest peril just now lies in irrational budget-making, and because I think it is important that educational leadership concern itself with the broad problem of budget policy in local, state, and national government, I want to speak first of irrational budget-making before I turn to some of the implications of imperative economy. And, since I can speak only by way of illustration, I shall speak only of national budget policy.

Now there are three popular assumptions respecting federal finances being sedulously cultivated by certain groups. First, that the present federal deficit threatens the federal credit. Second, that the federal budget must be balanced at once. Third, that new taxes must be levied and drastic retrenchment effected in order to save the federal credit.

I think there is a good deal of hokum in all three of these assumptions. I hesitate to run counter to the counsel of the Baruchs and the Traylors and like business leaders who, in testimony before the Senate's clinic in economic dislocation, have contended that the road to recovery can be charted on a calling card with the succinct sentence: "Balance the budget." But I ask very modestly, is this counsel as realistic as it sounds?

I speak with some hesitancy respecting the fiscal problem confronting the government because I am but a lay observer of its operations, and I have not followed the fiscal fortunes of the federal government for the last three or four months. I followed with some care the Republican and Democratic discussions of federal finances during the late campaign and tried to check them against available information. Since then I have been so completely absorbed in the relation of the state finances of Wisconsin to the University of which I am executive, that I have not kept federally uptodate. So anything I say this morning about the Federal budget is subject to check in the light of the happenings of the last three or four months.

But certainly as of November last I question much of the budgetary jitters a persistent propaganda has been stirring up.

How do those who insist that the federal deficit today threatens the federal credit and that drastic alterations in tax policy and social expenditures must be made in order to preserve the federal credit compute the deficit they are talking about, and what does the deficit they talk about, really represent?

As anyone who has made even the most elementary studies of the financial situation knows, there are two popular methods of arriving at the federal

deficit, used by many of those acting upon the three assumptions I have just listed.

One method is by noting the rise or fall of the gross federal debt from year to year. Another method is by noting the cash conditions of the federal government on a given date by the simple grocery-store daybook method of checking expenditures against receipts.

Now, granting the technical accuracy of the figures used in statements resting on these two notations, I submit that they do not necessarily give a true picture of the financial status of the government. Let me indicate why such figures standing alone do not.

First, take the matter of the gross federal debt: The cold figures on the gross federal debt for the two and one-quarter year period ending last fall were as follows: On June 30, 1930, the gross federal debt stood at \$16,185,000,000. Two and one-quarter years later, on September 30, 1932, the gross federal debt stood at \$20,611,000,000. These figures indicate a deficiency of \$4,426,000,000 or about 4.4 billions. But this cannot be taken as an accurate index of the situation unless we examine two related sets of facts. First, what were the purposes for which this debt increase was incurred? Were they purposes that should logically be financed out of current income. What were the number and nature of federal assets that might offset that deficiency?

Let me mention only one offsetting asset to those figures that many of the budgetary Jeremiahs ignore. When the gross federal debt, in the summer of 1930, was some \$16,000,000,000, the net balance in the general fund was only \$319,000,000. But when the gross federal debt in the fall of 1932 was some \$20,000,000,000, the net balance in the general fund had risen to \$862,000,000. In other words, with the offset of the balance in the general fund alone, the asserted deficiency of \$4,426,000,000 drops to \$3,883,000,000, or a drop from 4.4 billions to 3.8 billions, a difference of \$543,000,000, more than one-half billion.

It is by ignoring such factors (and I use only this one by way of illustration) that an apparent deficit that is far beyond a true deficit can be put up by certain business men to scare legislatures and congresses.

If the person alarmed about the condition of federal finances turns from the gross federal debt to the actual cash condition of the federal government on a given date, checking expenditures against receipts, the same uncertainty as to whether he is stating an apparent or a true deficit obtains. It depends upon what is included in his estimate.

For the period from July 1, 1930, to September 30, 1932, if the general fund deficits only are considered, they stand at \$4,074,000,000. But if all the trust funds and special funds are brought into the picture, the deficit for that period stands at \$4,187,000,000. In other words, there is a difference of \$113,000,000 in the deficit estimate, depending upon what is included in the estimate, and in many of the supposedly responsible discussions of the federal deficit, you can find the widest variance in what is included.

But these variations, due to obscure or obsolete federal bookkeeping, are not the important considerations. The important consideration is whether

or not there are included in an asserted deficit, expenditures for purposes which a farsighted government should not, in a period of depression, seek to finance by current taxation, by bleeding white the basic services of government, or by withholding valid public works that might at least soften the tragic impact of unemployment.

The deficit that is said by some to be threatening the government credit and shaking business confidence does include several such expenditures, expenditures that in my judgment should not be covered now either by a serious rise in taxes or by a serious retrenchment in productive government expenditures.

Some of such expenditures that enter into the existing deficit are as follows: (1) public debt retirements of the last two or three years; (2) federal loans and investments, such as the half billion dollar purchase of Reconstruction Finance Corporation stock in 1932; (3), capital outlays, such as the approximately one-third billion dollars of public construction in 1931 and in 1932. We shall, in my judgment, deepen the depression if, following the lead of those who think all our ills begin and end in the federal budget, we insist that all expenditures of this sort be lumped with the ordinary expenditures of the current services of government and the total impact be absorbed by a serious rise in taxes and a serious retrenchment in those basic services which alone have made government a stabilizing and creative force.

It is my sober judgment, ladies and gentlemen, that the federal credit can be kept sound if as a people we keep our heads and refuse to be rushed by a budgetary hysteria into a wrecking of the scientific, social, and economic services that are the very beating heart of constructive government.

It is the part of political wisdom, it seems to me, to spread the load of depressions out over a more prosperous period. Otherwise, relatively speaking, whenever a serious retardation hits us, we must wreck, in a few years of depression, values and services that will take us a generation to recreate.

Balance the budget out of current revenues, with respect to ordinary expenses? Yes. With respect to extraordinary expenditures, loans, investments, capital outlay, emergency relief, and the like? No. They should be financed out of borrowings and met out of the revenues of a more prosperous time.

If now we stop extraordinary expenditures for public work and go recreant to our relief responsibilities, or if we insist upon paying for them out of seriously increased taxes, we shall surely deepen and prolong this depression. And if now we cut the heart out of the basic services of government, we shall, in preventing a financial deficit, produce a social deficit for which our children and our grandchildren will damn us.

Do not misunderstand me. Upon the imperative necessity for economy in public expenditures there can be no disagreement. I insist only that the situation challenges us to effect that economy with statesmanlike foresight for the future of community, state, and nation. It is possible to be quite as short-sighted in administering economy as in allowing extravagance. And just because there is this possibility of short-sightedness in the administration of necessary economy a grave national danger lurks in our current concern with economy. We can so easily economize blindly or let limited

interests dictate the schedules of retrenchment. We dare not be gullible. Alongside the foresight, intelligence, and sincerity behind the insistence that we establish a sounder relation between our income and our outgo, there is much blindness, blundering, self-interest, and sheer insincerity in the almost hysterical campaign against public expenditures now sweeping the nation. By all means let us give prudence a permanent seat in our public counsels. By all means let us stop waste. But let us be sure that it is real waste that we are stopping. Real economy may mean national salvation. Bogus economy may mean national suicide.

I ask you to remember that we could dismantle every federal bureau and stop every civil function of the national government—with the four exceptions of construction, relief, loans for shipbuilding, and the Federal Farm Board—and still reduce the federal budget by only 8 percent. The complete cost of the legislative, executive, and judicial activities of the federal government absorbs less than two-thirds of one percent of the total federal outlay. Where, then, you may ask does all the money go? Well, for one thing, almost three-fourths of the total expenditures of the federal government go to pay the costs of our current military establishment and to carry the obligations incurred in past wars. That is to say, of every dollar we pay in taxes to the federal government about 75 cents goes into payment for past wars and preparation against future wars. Think of that the next time you are tempted to applaud the blatherskite or jingo who denounces every intelligent attempt to outlaw war as puling pacifism.

The more deeply we analyze the problem of public expenditures, the clearer it becomes that it simply is not the scientific, social, and educational services of the nation that are bending the American back. And yet, thruout the nation, we are trying to balance budgets by cutting the very heart out of the only things that make government a creative social agency. We slash scientific bureaus. We drastically shrink our support of social services. We hamstring our regulatory agencies. We fire visiting nurses. We starve libraries. We reduce hospital staffs. We squeeze education. And we call this economy. And actually think we are intelligent in calling it that. How the gods must be laughing at us! And how our grandchildren will damn us!

While we are bleeding white the only things that make government socially significant, we go gaily on with political and economic policies that are surely setting the stage for further wars and thus fastening securely upon us three-fourths or more of the existing federal budget. And state governments thruout the nation are committing the same blind sin. In our states we lay the ax at the root of the tree of all the civilizing agencies evolved during the last half century and at the same time blandly tolerate the multitude of unnecessary and criminally wasteful forms of local government which, essential and unavoidable in the days of bottomless mud roads and the one-horse buggy, are indefensible in this day of good roads, automobiles, telephones, radio, and the varied new forces that have conquered both time and distance. We could balance our state budget and make unnecessary the surrender or starvation of a single socially significant service if we had the

vision and courage to effect an intelligent reform of our system of local government. But to effect real economies of that sort is to call for a kind of thought and action we have yet to display.

The real issue confronting us is not economy versus extravagance. That question is well on its way to settlement. Leaders who foster extravagance will be broken. The issue is real economy versus bogus economy. The sword that hangs over education and all the other social and cultural enterprises of government is the danger of bogus economy.

In the achievement and administration of real economy every responsible schoolman must stand ready to cooperate with the leadership of community, state, and nation. If even one drop of water can be found in any educational stock, now is the time to dehydrate. If there is anywhere in our schools a service that has measurably outlived its usefulness, now is the time to eliminate it. If there is anywhere anything that has been over-developed, any phase of our program that has been over-specialized, any over-coddling of the student where we might properly ask him to indulge in a little more self-education, now is the time to correct such errors. Now is the time to declare a moratorium on vested interests and those vested ideas of the economic system which, in more normal times, slowed down healthy processes of educational reconstruction.

But even so utterly sincere and statesmanlike a facing of the challenge to real economy as I have suggested may leave the future of education seriously endangered thruout the nation. It will not be enough to foster real economy. Bogus economy must be fought. Not to save their own skins or to safeguard their salaries, but to discharge their responsibility to the American future, educators, once they have come with clean hands on the issue of real economy, must be willing to put their breasts to the guns in the battle against bogus economy.

There is under way a high-powered drive, national in scope and manned by able leaders who are determined drastically to slash the national bill for education at any cost. It is important, for all Americans who want to see the significance of education for the national future safeguarded, to understand the forces back of this drive. The more obvious forces back of this drive are, I think, three, viz:

(1) The epidemic of fear that grips the nation as it watches its income fall lower and lower.

(2) The weakness of a taxation system that, in most places, puts an undue part of the tax load on real and personal property, and prompts millions of harrassed Americans to strike blindly out for relief without any too much discrimination about what they hit.

(3) Groups which have always been opposed to adequate support for education and are now taking advantage of the necessity for real economy and the epidemic of fear to achieve their niggardly and anti-social objective.

I suggest three broad lines along which I think educators are obliged to move if they are to discharge their responsibility to the future of community, state, and nation.

(1) Educators should see to it that the teaching profession and the public are put in possession of all the pertinent facts about any short-sighted and anti-social forces that may be operating in an uncritical drive against educational expenditures.

This is not to say, let me make sun clear, that educators should set themselves in opposition to sound economies. It is only to say that they must not permit, if they can prevent it, a blind assault on the enterprise of education by limited and anti-social interests bent upon taking advantage of the time to slash the heart out of education in the cold interest of their pocketbooks.

(2) Educators should meet an unfair propagandizing of the public with a wise education of the public in the actual facts of the situation.

Thousands upon thousands of honest Americans, who have always been the friends of education, have been bewildered by propagandists during the last few months. There is, make no mistake about it, an organized drive of national scope to cut educational support below anything that even this difficult time requires. If the bewildered friends of education are not enlightened, the propagandists will be able to get away with a high-handed scuttling of the educational ship instead of buckling down to the unpopular task of fundamental governmental and economic readjustments which, in cutting costs, might reduce the supply of pork.

(3) Educators should meet the situation with offensive rather than merely defensive tactics.

I mean by this that now is the time of all times to go to the public with far-sighted educational programs the importance of which to the future of community, state, and nation can but be clear to sincere intelligence. To huddle defensively around services without a searching appeal is never justified. In a time of stress it is a kind of social treason. Now, if ever, is the time to make manifest to all the central significance of a creative education in the life of a great people.

Believe me, I am not so much concerned with what a scuttling of the budgets of scientific bureaus, libraries, hospitals, schools, and like agencies will mean in 1933. For a time, we can do far less work on far less money. For a time, drastically reduced staffs can carry drastically increased responsibilities. For a time, we can, even if it will prove bad business in the long run, drastically cut down on the maintenance of the physical plants of our institutions. I am not, let me repeat, so much concerned with what even the severest of necessary economy will mean in 1933. But I am deeply disturbed by what a bogus economy in 1933 will mean for the American life of 1953.

The real results of a bogus economy will not show up in 1933. But if now we hi-jack the fundamental scientific, social, and educational services of government, it will be a generation or more before we shall be able to climb back even to the efficiency these services now display. If now we beat down the salary scales of public servants, we shall but succeed in further diverting superior capacity from public service. Business and the professions have long drained off from public service the very sort of men and women

public service most needs. We dare not intensify this diversion of exceptional ability from public service. I am quite aware that salaries and wages outside public service have had to take drastic cuts in these trying days, but, once the economic curve turns upward, it will be but a question of months until the salary and wage curve in business and the professions will follow the economic curve in its upward sweep, but this will not be true of the salary and wage scales of public servants. And in the meantime, with the memory of the almost insulting scorn to which disinterested public servants are all too often subjected in the midst of an economy campaign, in the year immediately ahead fewer men and women of outstanding ability will be inclined to give their lives to public service. All of which means that it will be our children rather than ourselves who will pay the price of our short-sighted economy. And this must be remembered: We can postpone the building of a road, a bridge, or a building, and catch up on such delayed construction later on. We cannot put educational opportunity in cold storage for the duration of the depression and catch up on it later on. For the children who are denied adequate educational opportunity now, it is lost forever. And we shall stand convicted of having balanced our budgets with the starved lives and frustrated careers of our sons and daughters.

GENERAL SESSION, TUESDAY EVENING, FEBRUARY 28

The Administration of Education on the New Frontiers

EDUCATIONAL ECONOMY AND FRONTIER NEEDS

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Economy in the support of education is desirable at all times. Under existing conditions, thrifty and careful administration of public education is the only basis upon which its essential services can be maintained. School budgets have been cut drastically in most communities thruout our country.

The educational frontier was never before so challenging as it is at the present moment. The traditional program, suited to the needs of an earlier social and economic order, will not satisfy presentday conditions. An ever increasing percentage of all boys and girls are enrolled in our secondary and higher educational institutions because of the social necessity for more advanced training and because of the reduction in the number of workers needed to maintain production in our machine-served civilization.

The problem of successful working and living under present conditions is more certainly associated with the service of the schools than under the frontier conditions, with which our grandfathers and our fathers wrestled. Today for millions of adults continuing education and retraining for new

jobs is indicated as the only sound solution for them and for society. For all of us the opportunity for creative endeavor, made possible by increased leisure time, can be capitalized by continued learning in groups under the instruction of able teachers, or by individual adherence to a worthy program. For the great majority of adults work in groups under capable leadership is clearly indicated. I know of nothing more significant than the experiments already under way in this field. In New York, as you know, due to a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, the unemployed are teaching the unemployed. In Des Moines, Iowa, you know of the experiment already under way to organize discussion groups. In Montclair, New Jersey, we are told, there are already thirty such groups at work.

Possibly the most significant challenge to education in the new frontier is to be found in the need for growth of boys and girls, of young men and young women, and of adults in appreciation of the fundamental social problems which confront us. Our schools have to deal with problems as wide as the world in which we live. We have the obligation to guide the thinking of those who are to meet the issues which may result in peace or in war, in the development of a society in which social justice shall take the place of exploitation, and in which men may learn to work together for the common good.

I have here a sheet entitled "Moral Disarmament," a memorandum presented by the American and British delegations to the Disarmament Conference, offering a formal declaration on the subject of moral disarmament, which presents the problem and opens an opportunity to the educational authorities of the countries concerned. May I read this document to you?

"The High Contracting Parties,

"Conscious of the extent to which the reduction and limitation of armaments depend upon increasing the trust and confidence of nations in their dealings with each other, and

"Conscious that the sense of security which this confidence engenders depends not only upon the present policies of governments but also upon the international understanding of the history and outlook of the nations themselves, and,

"Conscious of the fact that the conditions of the modern world make necessary increasing international contacts with proportionately greater chance for either strengthening or endangering international peace.

"Agree to recommend to their competent educational authorities the study of the principles and application of pacific settlement of international disputes and of the renunciation of war as an instrument of national policy, and to prescribe those subjects to all examinations for government positions which may involve relations with other countries, not only in the consular and diplomatic service, but in all branches of the national government.

"Invite the cooperation of the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations to study the services that the cinema, the theater, and broadcasting can render in the furtherance of international understanding and the ways and means for increasing the spirit of tolerance, fair play, and justice among nations."

Can the challenge of the new educational frontier be met, and can we at the same time reduce educational expenditures? The answer may be

found in part in the fact that many school systems are offering essential services during the current depression for less money than was spent in more prosperous times. The purchasing power of the dollar has increased. All usual governmental costs should show a corresponding decrease. Many school systems have already accepted these necessary and just reductions. The Office of Education, on the basis of a nation-wide study, shows the amount of money budgeted for current expenses in city school systems during the current year to be 6.75 percent less than for last year. It is my personal judgment, based upon information now being assembled, that the reductions made on account of budgets, adopted since the beginning of the calendar year will show at least double the percentage reductions reported for the current year.

But in making the adjustments due to diminished income, it is of the utmost importance that essential school services be maintained. Indeed, it may be pointed out that in every area the demands made upon the schools are heavier than in times of prosperity. Children and young people need more of guidance and sympathy. Education is called upon more certainly to provide the skill, the knowledge, and insofar as it may, the adaptability which will enable its recipients to adjust themselves to a rapidly changing social and economic world. Conditions of distress caused by unemployment make the maintenance of the morale of children and of youth a matter of primary obligation.

It is startling to discover from a review of current tendencies that many boards of education in seeking to reduce their budgets have eliminated from the educational program those services more recently added. Surely there is no justification for this easy road to false economy.

Health service and physical education have been omitted in some communities. This is not economy. The work of doctors and nurses has in very considerable measure resulted in the development of immunity from infectious diseases over a wide area. Health service for children has undoubtedly contributed to the lowering of the death rate. Physical education is indispensable for the normal growth and development of youth. When children and young people are denied the growth and health which come from physical activities, the saving in such expenditures may be more than offset by increased costs for hospitals, for reformatories, and for jails.

Night schools and the broader program of adult education that were just getting under way have been abandoned in many school systems. Libraries, never before so widely used, have been denied sufficient funds to buy books and maintain their personnel. This is not economy. When young people and adults are sufficiently ambitious to spend their leisure time in an effort to improve their status thru education, society loses if it denies this opportunity to them. This is the time when opportunities for retraining, for the encouragement of creative endeavor, and for the development of a sounder program of educational and vocational guidance should be carried forward.

I wonder if most of my audience remember that stirring address by the warden of the institution in New York State at Sing Sing, when he pointed

out that the average age of the inmates of that institution was twenty-three years, and when he called upon us and upon those associated with us and responsible for the welfare of young men to provide the education, the sympathy, the understanding, and the opportunity which would save those young men and save society.

Kindergartens have been dropped from the program of education in some communities. This is not economy. Young children, particularly in the congested areas of our cities, need now more than at any other time the service which the schools can offer. It is precisely at this time that their homes are least able to care for them and to provide for them the activities and the social contacts which are essential for their normal growth and development.

Classes for the physically or mentally handicapped have been eliminated from the programs, or the offerings have been curtailed in many cities. This is not economy. Society has an obligation to provide a significant opportunity for every child thru the discovery and development of his individual abilities regardless of the handicap under which he may suffer. To deny such opportunity is to increase the burden which society must carry in the years which lie ahead.

Many of the subjects most recently added to the curriculum of the schools have been dropped or the offerings curtailed. A report recently issued by the Office of Education shows that even in the more favored communities offerings in music, in art, in home economics, in vocational education, and in educational and vocational guidance have been decreased. These newer subjects and services have been brought into the school system to meet the demand made upon the schools to fit their programs to the needs and capacities of children of all levels of intelligence and at all varieties of interest and vocational outlook. To omit these subjects or services is not economy. The cost of education is measured not by the subjects taught but rather by the number of children enrolled in the schools. For many of the boys and girls now in attendance in our schools the newer subjects offer the most certain opportunity for growth in skill, in knowledge, in ability to engage in precise thinking, in appreciation, and in creative endeavor. The traditional curriculum, important as it is, is not and cannot be adjusted to meet the needs and capacities of all boys and girls. Social stability in the United States cannot be dissociated from the promise of equality of opportunity thru education.

In many school systems necessary books and supplies have been denied to teachers and pupils. This is not economy. One might as well ask the artisan to work without his tools as to expect that teachers can accomplish satisfactory results without the equipment in books and educational supplies necessary for the efficient participation by children in the educational program provided for them. The continued intellectual activities of most boys and girls are dependent upon the adequacy of the books and educational supplies and other equipment with which they learn to work during the period of formal education.

The length of the school term has been shortened in many school systems. This is not economy. The teachers of the United States have become a group of professional workers whose salaries represent their annual income. The cutting of the school term by a month or more with the suggestion that the salary schedule has been maintained because the monthly payment has been kept up results in a loss of opportunity to children and in no corresponding advantage to teachers.

In the conquering of the frontier, our forefathers were forced to exercise rigid economy. If we are to serve our society under the current distressing conditions, real economies must be effected. The issue for us and for our society may well be found in the reexamination of our scale of values. We need to ask ourselves whether we care most for the maintenance of our salaries or for the maintenance of the services which the school system has to offer.

All of us, teachers and laymen alike, may have to reach a decision with respect to the relative importance of the services which our government has to offer. Surely all of us will agree concerning the necessity of providing relief for those who are out of work and in distress. Surely none of us would deny the importance of protecting the life and property of our people as fundamental to the maintenance of our society. But I question whether there are any other obligations that take priority over education, and I confidently believe that both in our individual and in our collective economy we may find it necessary to eliminate other services and luxuries, in order to maintain the more fundamental service of education.

Roads can be postponed; public buildings may be postponed; reclamation projects, dams and waterways can wait, but the education of children cannot be postponed. Now is the only time that we can provide them with that education which will make for the perpetuity of our society.

There is a very considerable percentage of our total population who have come to enjoy relatively luxurious living. The issue may have to be drawn between the enjoyment of those luxuries, which are now often considered as necessities, and the maintenance of a sound program of public education. In the answer that is given may rest the destiny of our society.

But economies must be made. Let us be realists.

We of the teaching profession are under the obligation to accept salary reductions in line with decreased costs of living. But great care should be taken that we do not destroy our program by unwise procedures in salary adjustment. Salary cuts should not operate to deny advancement to younger teachers. It is particularly important in the current social and economic situation that teachers be sufficiently supported to enable them to continue to add to their professional competence. It is vital that the supervisory service which is primarily responsible for their growth in efficiency in the art of teaching be maintained at a high level. When salary reductions reach the alarming proportions already to be found in some areas, there is grave danger of loss of morale and of a decrease in the efficiency of the service rendered.

Economies can be effected by the better organization and administration of education thru the establishment of larger units of administration, par-

ticularly in rural areas. Waste and inefficiency are necessarily associated with the maintenance of many units of administration so small as to render impossible any highly competent service on the part of either lay control or professional administration.

It has been my privilege within the past year to visit in two states. I will give you two examples of what I found. In one, five one-teacher schools within five miles, on a concrete highway. In another, two feeble, inefficient, impossible, little high schools within four miles of each other, on a concrete highway. A third, a junior college, so-called, with nineteen pupils taking the very life and vitality out of a high school with which it was associated.

Economy is clearly indicated as well in the development of a more highly professionalized service in the state education offices of our country. Many of them are at the present time understaffed and without the authority which would enable them to serve efficiently the localities over which they have general supervision. If these offices were able to advise and to control in external matters such as the planning and construction of buildings, in the development of adequate accounting and budgetary procedures, in the determination of attendance districts, in the location of buildings, and in the economical organization of the program thruout the whole area of the state, tens of millions of dollars could be saved annually to the taxpayers of the nation.

Economies have been effected in many school systems by increasing the size of classes. Where classes have been small, this increase may be justified. It is important, however, to call attention to the fact that in many of the larger school systems classes are already overwhelmingly large, in some cases rendering efficient teaching impossible. It is necessary to note as well that increasing the size of classes reduces the number of persons employed, and particularly the number of younger and more vigorous persons normally recruited for the teaching profession.

In the consideration of class size, distinctions must be made among the types of work done. A class in group singing may very well include one hundred or more children. It is not uncommon practise to find a group of from sixty to a hundred children at work in groups in a large gymnasium under the direction of a competent teacher of physical education.

But we must not lose sight of the fact that education is an individual matter. When class sizes are increased, it is of the utmost importance to provide those services of guidance and adjustment which will insure proper attention to the individual child.

In many communities significant economies can be made in the cost of operating and maintaining the school plant. Waste and inefficiency are to be found in some school systems directly related to the use of the schools for political patronage.

In a large middlewestern city with which I became pretty well acquainted during the past year, when a new business manager was appointed, every newspaper in the city said, "And he is to dispense the patronage of the school system." And they had it right, because, as a matter of careful survey of the

situation, there is in that city at least \$3,000,000 spent every year in excess of any necessity for service in the operation and maintenance of plant.

In other cases the need is for the better training of the workers and the better administration of the services related to the operation and maintenance of the plant. Economies can most certainly be effected thru the development of more efficient methods of purchasing fuel and other supplies, the more economical handling of insurance risks, and the more certain control and accounting for the use of materials and supplies thruout the school system.

If you want to get out of the city of Minneapolis something that is worth all it cost you to come to this convention, I recommend that you visit that building in which the plant administration of this city is centered. You probably cannot find in any other city in the United States anything quite comparable to the efficiency with which the job is being done here, and you can see the whole thing in operation if you will only go out there to the building where the operation and maintenance of the school plant of the city of Minneapolis is settled. Then after you go there, I hope you will take the taxicab around to the janitors' school, and then you will know why it is that when you go into a school building in this city you can take out your white handkerchief and rub it over anything that there is in sight and it will come away just as clean as it was when it left the laundry.

In general, better administration of schools thru more adequate budgetary practice may be expected to result in economy. The all too common method of estimating the gross amount needed without defining the program and without detailed analysis of the unit costs involved must give way to more precise methods. No one has a right to propose that he has made a budget until he has clearly defined the program of services which it is proposed to offer. With this program in mind and with the estimates of revenues to be made available in hand, it becomes possible to determine whether or not the expenditures necessary to maintain the program are possible. The budget can be met only when the expenditures for all services, based upon a complete analysis of the costs involved, totals an amount not greater than the expected revenues. Good budgetary procedure requires still further the adherence to the budget as adopted. Each expenditure, from the day the fiscal year begins to its end, must be referred to the provision made in the budget and may not exceed the amount therein provided. When these procedures are followed, waste and inefficiency are eliminated and an economical administration can be maintained.

Economy may be effected thru the more complete utilization of plant and equipment already provided and thru the scientific planning of new construction. In many communities thru the lengthening of the school day and the reorganization of the school program, more children can be accommodated in buildings already available. In new structures expert planning will reduce the number of cubic feet required per pupil. Other economies may be effected by the more simple and certainly not less beautiful design, by the elimination of useless and costly mechanical equipment, and by the better adaptation of the building to the actual needs of the school program.

Even when all possible economies have been effected, there will be many local school systems unable to offer significant educational opportunities to children and to youth. This situation is due to the dependence of these tax districts upon the general property tax. From time immemorial we have recognized the obligation of the state to provide an equalized opportunity for education to all the children within its borders. Unfortunately the systems of state aid in a majority of the states have not yet been completed to a point where this ideal is realized. In the present emergency, the closing of schools and the denial of opportunity to millions of American boys and girls is clearly indicated unless the state or the nation steps in to remedy the situation.

It is possible even in hard times thru the development of a statewide revenue system to provide for the maintenance of an equalized program of education in every area within the state. The technic required for the distribution of such support is already available. The National Survey of School Finance in its analysis of the situation has shown the way to measure the need and the capacity to pay upon the part of each administrative area. It has just as clearly indicated the legislation necessary to make effective a system of support that will guarantee the fundamental program of education to every child within the state's borders. It is the obligation of the profession to bring to the attention of legislators thruout the land the necessity for immediate action in the defense of our system of free public education.

But there are cities, rural areas and even whole states which find themselves unable to finance their educational programs. The emergency calls for action by the federal government. Emergency loans should be granted by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to these states in order to enable them to maintain their systems of free public education. The economic situation has undoubtedly justified the extension of credit to railroads, to banks, and to agriculture.

But the payment of the salaries of the teachers of Chicago is more important than the keeping of a railroad out of receivership. And the maintenance of school services in Alabama and Arizona is more important than keeping solvent even a great bank. The inability of some of the states to maintain their public school systems just as certainly calls for relief from the federal government. A lack of educational opportunity in any state is a menace to the life of the nation. American boys and girls who are today being denied their educational birthright will be the rulers of our country within the next twenty years.

Our economic development, particularly during the period of the past twenty years, has resulted in increased disparities among the states in income. The very nature of our economic system, with its concentration of wealth and income in our larger financial centers, is indicative of the drift toward still greater differences in financial ability among the states. Even if no emergency existed, further federal support would be indicated as a matter of justice and of equity among the several states. Federal support of education is as necessary a fiscal policy as the support of education by the state in every administrative area within its borders.

The challenge of the new frontier must be met. Our society is passing thru a period of unprecedented economic distress. Economies can and must be made, but the services of education must be expanded and increased in efficiency to meet the needs of the crisis. We must fight not only to keep schools open but, also, to provide in them opportunities suited to the needs and capacities of all boys and girls. We must rededicate ourselves to the realization of the ideal of equality of opportunity.

INDEPENDENCE IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT—A FRONTIER NECESSITY ¹

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY, DEAN OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, STANFORD
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The present is a trying time to anyone who is responsible for public budgets or public administration in any form. Having greatly expanded our styles of living, and having mortgaged our future income for new plant and equipment purchased at inflated prices, we now face the necessity of not only contracting our expenditures, but also trying to liquidate our mortgages from markedly decreased income. In all forms of the public service we find ourselves confronted with the painful duty of eliminating positions and decreasing maintenance charges. Governors and legislatures on the one hand, and mayors and city councils on the other are today casting about to see where expenditures can be cut so that budgets will come within the greatly reduced paying abilities of the taxpayers. In the various attempts to accomplish the difficult feat of budget balancing, cuts have been proposed in many branches of the public service, and the public schools, as one of the larger spending branches, have frequently been asked to submit to what has seemed to be more than their proper share of tax reduction.

Where no constitutional or legal guarantees have stood in the way, the cuts in the appropriations for public schools, actual and proposed, have often been excessive, and where such guarantees have existed, there have been proposals for their elimination. In a number of our states it has been seriously advocated that all requirements for fixed appropriations or fixed tax levies for public education be repealed, and that the public school authorities be required each year to go before the legislature, the county supervisors, or the city council and ask for what they think they need, and take what they can get after all the political interests have been cared for. In other words, it is now proposed by governors and mayors to break down the carefully established fiscal independence of the public school system, and to subordinate education to the political exigencies of state and local control. The situation in some states has become so acute, and the proposals for the elimination of guarantees have been so numerous, that an examination of the real ground for the adequate support of public education may well be in order.

In all our educational development, from the earliest times in our national life to the present, the authority and power to develop public education have derived from the state, and not, except secondarily, from the local

¹ Read by Grayson N. Kefauver, Dean-Elect, School of Education, Stanford University, Calif.

community. Conceived by the early founders of our republic as a great public interest, ranking with the home and the church as an important bulwark of society and government, public education, like the judiciary, has been set apart in separate sections of the constitutions of our states as an important state function which the legislature has been charged to cherish and maintain. While the county, the city, and the school district have been created as subordinate political divisions for purposes of local administration, and have been endowed with certain governmental powers by the state, the state has, thruout all our history, clearly distinguished between local governmental administration and the carrying out of major state interests and functions. As a consequence of this separation of powers, the function of public education, like the judiciary and for the same reason, has been placed in a separate category in the state constitution and endowed with powers somewhat distinct from those of the local governmental corporations with which the administrative school districts may be partly or wholly coterminous. This has been done that a major interest of the state—the proper training of the next generation of citizens—may not be subordinated to local governmental needs and expediencies. So important has the consideration of public health recently become, in part as a result of the great hygienic revolution which has taken place during the past half century and in part as a result of the experiences and lessons of the World War, that we are probably now well started on the road toward placing health administration in a somewhat similar major-interest category. There are many evidences of this in the recently-enacted laws of our states dealing with the enforcement of sanitary regulations. One illustration that may be cited is the establishment of State Health Councils, as in New York state, with power to supersede any local health ordinance by general state regulation.

Any other attitude toward the position of our public school systems would not be in accord with the historical development of education in the United States. While schools almost everywhere, in the early days of our country, arose locally and the organization of education was from the local community outward and upward, this growth took place, nevertheless, in conformity with permissive laws enacted by the state. The first district schools formed and the first district taxes levied were originally permitted by the enactment of state school laws. When the state changed permission to obligation, compulsory taxation for education was provided for, and when the state began to grant aid to the local communities for school support the basis for state school supervision was laid. When the state decided that the school must be free and equally open to all, it put an end to the rate bill and the pauper-school idea. When the state decreed that the school must be free from denominational influences, it ended the giving of any form of public aid to denominational schools and eliminated sectarian control. When the state enacted permissive legislation for the establishment of high schools, it decided that opportunity must be provided, at public expense, for more than elementary school training. When the state established normal schools, it paved the way for the eventual training, at public expense, of all

who are to teach in our schools. In compulsory-school-attendance legislation the state superseded the home in estimating the importance to the child of the education provided. In the elimination of the district system of school control, in the curtailing of various educational abuses, in the insistence upon educational standards and an adequate school term, in ordering the provision of school-attendance officers, in reinstating teachers illegally dismissed by localities, in formulating a state school-building code, and in many other ways the state has asserted its authority and often has recovered from local administrative subdivisions the authority it once permitted them to exercise, in its name.

Thruout all our educational history it has been the voice of the state which has ordered children educated, instructional advantages extended, standards raised, and taxation for education increased. Whenever a majority of the people have become convinced that educational advances should be made, they have registered this conviction by amending the article on education in their state constitution, or the legislature of the state has embodied it in the form of a new law, and the creation of a series of free, common, non-sectarian school systems has been one of the notable achievements of our democratic states. The state, tho, thruout all our history, has been the unit in all legislative progress in school control.

In reading the article on education in almost any of our state constitutions, one can experience no doubt that education has been made an important state interest, or that the state is the real unit in educational affairs. The authority of the state in educational matters is clearly implied or asserted, and the directions given the legislature and the governmental subdivisions of the state are often mandatory in character. An examination of the school law of any American state will reveal still further the state character of the school system which has been provided. Altho the management and control of the schools of any district or town or city may be placed by law in the hands of locally-elected officials; altho much liberty of action may be granted locally by the school code; and altho the large burden for the support of schools may fall on local sources of taxation; the schools nevertheless exist to carry out a state purpose, as expressed in the state constitution and the school law, and the local governing authorities act as agents for the state and can do only those things which the school law permits of being done. Nor can cities in their charters supersede the legal and constitutional requirements of the state.

An examination of the state supreme court decisions on educational questions in any American state will reveal still further the same conception of education as a state function. There is scarcely a phase of our state school legal organization upon which the supreme courts of some of our states have not at some time been called upon to rule. In addition to upholding the authority of the state as the ultimate unit for administrative control, these courts have been insistent that the constitutional provisions requiring a uniform school system shall be carried out by the subordinate school units of the state. The insistence has been not so much on the details of procedure

as on the more fundamental matters of equality in the obligation of maintenance and in the right to enjoy that which has been provided. Thruout all these decisions there runs a fairly uniform trend, *viz.*, that the schools are state schools, established by authority of the state to carry out a state purpose; that the legislature of the state, having tried or permitted one method or form of administration, is not to be restrained from trying another; that the road to learning has been declared to be the common property of all the people, and that the educational rights of children are paramount; that the state school law is supreme, and cannot be superseded by any city or county charter regulation or school board by-law or rule; that the rights of the parent over his child are limited, and cannot be exercised if in conflict with what the state has determined by law to be the rights of the child or the larger needs of the state; that the officers of the school system, from state superintendent down to teacher, exist in part to guarantee the educational rights of the child, and in so doing act in the name of the state; that equality of educational opportunity shall be provided; that the scope of the school system and the limits of taxation shall be determined by the legislature, when not fixed in the fundamental law; and that it is the right and duty of the state to establish and enforce minimum standards below which communities shall not be allowed to drop. Any other attitude toward the position of our school systems would not be in accord with the historical development of education in the United States.

As a result of more than a century of evolution, public education has gradually been established as a great state interest, and it may be said to be a settled conviction of our people not only that the maintenance of a liberal system of public instruction is one of the important duties of the state, but that such a system of public instruction contributes markedly to the moral uplift of the people to a higher civic virtue, and to increased economic returns to the state. We of today conceive of free public education as a birth-right of the child on the one hand, and as an exercise of the state's inherent right to self-preservation and improvement on the other. The children of today are the citizens of tomorrow, and to prepare them well for their duties is both the obligation and the opportunity of the state.

All this statement is almost commonplace, as it has been somewhat generally accepted in principle at least by thinking people for a long time. In practise, however, the conception of education as a state interest is not as yet so clear in the minds of the majority of the electorate, or even of those who make and administer the laws. Particularly in our cities has there been a tendency, greatly increased within the past few years, to ignore state relationships and state purposes and to subordinate the schools to the exigencies of local politics. There has been, on the other hand, a growing consciousness of state origin and authority and purpose among those responsible for and interested in the conduct of city school systems, and an increasing tendency to appeal to the courts for the protection of educational rights and for the securing of adequate funds, and to the legislature or to the people for laws guaranteeing to the school system that independence of local munic-

ipal control, with the consequent freedom from personal politics and political expediencies, which will enable the school system of our cities and counties to pursue their proper course and to care for the education of the future citizenship as should be done.

To protect the schools from political exploitation and financial neglect there has been an increasing tendency, for the past half century, to grant fiscal independence to school boards, usually within certain legal limits, which has enabled them to determine the amount of school funds needed and to certify the same for levy, and this without interference by county or municipal authority so long as the sums asked for could be obtained by a tax levy within the limits set by law. There has been a marked increase in such authorization within the past twenty-five years. As cities have prepared new charters, better administrative conditions for the schools have been inserted, while a number of states have provided for fiscal independence for city and town school systems by general state law, thus superseding all charter regulations to the contrary. Of the cities of 5,000 to 30,000 inhabitants or over in the United States in 1930, in approximately two-thirds the school board possessed full fiscal independence. In general, the home of fiscal dependence is the North Atlantic group of states, while the West may be called the land of fiscal independence, tho exceptions to these generalizations are to be found in both regions. In California, for example, all school districts, large and small, and town and city, possess such independence. Each must submit a budget, approved by the city or county superintendent, but if the amount asked for can be raised within the tax limits set by law, no mayor, city council, or board of county supervisors can order it out or alter the figures. The school board has been given complete freedom in such matters within the fixed legal limits, and it is responsible to the people of the school district alone for its acts. This is as it should be, in view of the state origin and fundamental importance of public education in our national life. The ultimate conclusion of the process, for our cities at least, is complete independence of the city government, the people of each city school district electing their school board members, and these being responsible only to the people for their conduct of the schools and the money they shall spend—always within the tax limits set by the state constitution or the state legislature.

To such a grant of fiscal independence there is marked municipal objection and also some opposition from certain students of municipal government. The objection from municipal authorities and politicians arises largely from the inability of city political authorities, under such conditions of independence, to use the schools for their own local ends, or to subordinate to other city interests the fiscal needs of the schools in determining the city tax rate. Mayors and councils desire to retain control over the appointment of school board members because this tends to give them control over the school system, and they insist on the so-called unity of the budget and the tax rate that the school tax may be fitted into the political exigencies and pre-election promises of the members of the city political administra-

tion. As an abstract proposition their pleas may sound well enough; in practise every schoolman and every citizen knows better than to trust them. If the schools are to be free, it is asked, why not the parks and the health, and the police? The answer must be that public education is too important for the future of our national life to trust it to the whims and trades and log-rolling of a political body, elected with no reference to and with no interest in school administration. In but few of our cities has the sense of civic duty been such as to enable the people to place the schools on an equal footing with other city interests when party and personal political pressure are brought to bear. After the job-providing departments have been cared for, the problem then becomes that of keeping the tax rate down to some pre-election pledge, made with the intent to gain votes rather than to promote sound city and school administration, and as a result the schools take what is left after the other city services have been provided for. Parks, sewers, streets, police, the city hall, and the municipal services all provide jobs for party followers and naturally come first; the schools are a somewhat idealized investment in future public welfare, giving but little immediate visible return, and carried on largely by public-spirited women whom it is usually impossible to organize and vote. Even tho honest and actuated by good motives, the members of a city council or a county board of supervisors lack that close touch with and understanding of educational problems which will enable them to appreciate the large future importance of substantial expenditures for public education, and when the needs of the schools come into conflict with the apparently much more pressing needs of the various city departments, it is the schools which are forced to give way. Yet no other city department, except possibly that of health, represents any large future welfare interest. Even the health department is not so closely coordinated with the government, the home, and the church, as is the school. Examined in this light, the "unity of the city tax rate" becomes an argument of little importance. Even municipal authorities have no hesitancy in setting up separate taxing organizations when public improvements that minister to public convenience or provide jobs seem to call for such action, as water-supply districts, lighting districts, nuisance-abatement districts, bridge districts, and highway districts clearly evidence.

The whole matter of school support seemed fairly well settled, in principle at least, until within the past year or two when the acute financial situation in this country brought the whole question again to the fore. With the meeting of a large number of state legislatures the present winter, a flood of bills and constitutional amendments have already been introduced which propose to limit seriously or to abolish entirely that fiscal independence of the school to which we have attained within the past half-century. Certainly not within the memory of the present generation have the schools been faced by so many dangerous legislative proposals as they are today. How even a five-months school could be maintained in some of our states is difficult to see, if some of these so-called tax-reform proposals are enacted

into law. Even as it is, schools in many regions are already seriously crippled, abbreviated in scope, and shortened in term.

That general state tax reform is needed in the great majority of our states has been pointed out for decades by students of taxation and educational administration. It has for long been a matter of wonder that in many of our farming states, where the great bulk of taxation has been levied on farm and home property, anything like satisfactory school support could be obtained, even in prosperous times. In the present financial emergency, with many farmers and small home owners unable to pay taxes at all, a change in the entire basis of taxation is more than ever made to seem desirable. That, in addition, some material reduction in the amount of tax levied also is called for is generally admitted. When the taxing authorities confiscate one-third of the income of the nation, as they did last year, and use it for the maintenance of governmental services, the burden is too heavy. To bear a proper share in the general curtailment of public expenses the schools will readily agree, as we all recognize the serious emergency today confronting the nation; the objection is to the selfish and unthinking attempts on the one hand to force as much as possible of this reduction on the schools, and on the other hand to the calculated effort to sweep away that fiscal independence of the schools which has been won as a result of so much argument and struggle. It is the present attempt to reduce the schools to the position of a yearly suppliant before the city council, or the state legislature to which we must strenuously object. We all know only too well what the final result would be.

It clearly is the right of the people thru constitutional amendment, or acting thru their representatives in the legislature, to fix the rates of taxation for schools which they are willing should be levied, but so long as the schools remain within the tax limits so set they should be allowed to determine their own budget and expenditures. This claim is made because of the fundamental importance of public education as a creative social service, and because tax-levying authorities tend too often to neglect this major claim. In cases of emergency, as the present situation has well shown, school authorities are willing to reduce expenditures according to their proper share, but without fiscal independence they will be forced to undesirable sacrifices. That times such as the present place greater burdens on the schools than do prosperous times, and that vocational education, health services, evening schools, adult education, and public-library services all need greater attention and more money for maintenance than in good times, almost nobody dealing with the problems of tax support, except school people, seem to realize. Many of the present legislative proposals would strip the schools of all but the bare essentials, and eliminate all those supplemental services which are of such large importance to government and industry alike during periods of depression and wide-spread unemployment. There are many other forms of public expenditure that can far better stand curtailment.

To take, for illustrative purposes, one item of expense that could well be reduced in the present fiscal emergency, we will select highways. While a good hard road is a very desirable addition to one's comfort while traveling

by motor, and that it facilitates transportation and reduces its cost will be admitted by all, yet highways, desirable as they may be, in no way represent such an important social service or national interest as does public education. We could materially curtail highway work for a few years and scarcely note the loss, but a curtailment of educational advantages cuts heavily into the future life possibilities of a generation of young people. The actual waste of money on our highways today, too, in the employment of men to do by hand labor what could be done far better and far cheaper by machinery, is enormous. The proposals for grade-separation improvements, too, to prevent some careless or fate-tempting driver who scorns to "stop, look, and listen" from killing himself, are tremendously expensive and could easily be postponed. One could maintain a good-sized city school system for a year on what one important grade-separation project would cost. With the present general surplus in population, there is little need today for curtailing the education of thousands of school children that some careless or drunken driver should be prevented from killing himself by trying to dispute the right of way with a locomotive at some grade crossing. Grade separations, straightening of curves, and realignment of highways, desirable as they may be in themselves, nevertheless represent expenditures that are of far less importance than the maintenance of adequate systems of public schools, expenditures that can well wait for better times. What is true in regard to the highway costs is true, in greater or less degree, of many other forms of public spending.

While willing to cooperate as best we can in the lowering of tax rates on a burdened people, desirous of effecting any possible economies in the administration of public education, and agreeing, if the people so decree, to work under a somewhat reduced tax rate, we as school executives should resist with all our ability the present determined attempt of those interested either in mere economy or in other forms of public and patronage service, to deprive the schools of fiscal independence and to reduce the support of education to a yearly log-rolling struggle before some public body for necessary maintenance funds. Still more, in states and cities where fiscal independence has not been attained, the present emergency offers a good opportunity to inaugurate a movement to have certain legal tax rates for schools established in the law, with local independence when within these rates. Careful studies of the experience of American cities, both those possessing and those not possessing fiscal independence, indicate clearly the desirability of removing the tax-determining power for schools from the control of the city council, and placing it, within certain legal limits to be fixed by the legislature or the state constitution, with the school authorities for determination. Similar experience in a few states also indicates clearly the undesirability of leaving the state tax rate for schools to the mercies of the legislature. Some guarantee that education, as the major interest of the state which the state constitution and the state courts have declared it to be, will be protected from neglect and exploitation, the present fiscal emergency has revealed as more important than ever before.

That the leaders in public education in this country today face one of the most determined battles to preserve the schools from being sacrificed that economies in other public services need not be made, and that extravagances elsewhere may be untouched, there can be little question. We are on the battle line, whether we wish it or like it, and the situation calls for both defensive and offensive tactics. We must defend the rights which we have won after long and hard fighting, and the opportunity now presents itself to take the offensive and to bring home to the American people that it is of importance, for the future national life, that the educational services to our children be not in any serious manner curtailed. France, Germany, England, Belgium, and Italy, despite their crushing financial burdens and their comparative poverty, have maintained their schools at a high level; there is no economic or public reason why America should not do the same. Reasonable cuts in maintenance charges we will assume, but attempts to sweep aside the established guarantees must be fought to a finish.

IN TESTIMONY OF DR. ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY AND CAPITALIZING THE FRONTIER CRISIS

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT, PRESIDENT, PURDUE UNIVERSITY, LAFAYETTE, IND.

Ellwood P. Cubberley of Stanford University is my long-time friend and the friend of many of you. All of us are the professional beneficiaries of his richly productive life. For more than a third of a century, he has given himself with courageous devotion and with scholarly skill to the intricate and infinitely important task of securing, within and without the profession of education, a scientific and usable understanding of the structure and the government of the American school system. Now, the time approaches when he expects formally to retire and to be relieved from the many responsibilities accumulated thru the years. That we are permitted to do that which we now do is a timely and happy application of the law of compensation in human affairs. For there is not a responsible educational administrator today, progressively sensible to the conditions essential for the effective operation of the social mechanism called the public school, who is not indebted to this man Cubberley. He is, indeed, the master of those who administer schools well. Any gains which may come to American public education must include a fuller realization of the signal importance of having at all times, men of Cubberley's personal calibre and intellectual competency on the general staff of the nation's educational forces.

Eight and forty years ago the register of Purdue University contained the name of one, Ellwood Cubberley, classified as a student in the so-called preparatory department. A sub-freshman he would, I suppose, be called today. He remained in Purdue but one year. I have never thought to ask him why he left. One of two reasons may be assumed; that he feared the influence of such fellow students as George Ade, John T. McCutcheon, Bruce Rogers, who, as the history of the times now reveals, were then displaying symptoms of becoming dangerous literary and artistic heretics; or there was

an ambition to test the power of Indiana University for the making of university presidents. At any rate, immediately after graduating from Indiana, we find him serving for five years as professor and president of Vincennes University.

From the days of George Rogers Clark and his momentous victory at Vincennes, Indiana has been on the frontier. And the Hoosier has been a restless pioneer, always going to a distant somewhere and not coming back. Therefore, the young Hoosier schoolmaster was true to the breed and trekked clear across the continent to California. It is not unlikely that the spirit for this adventure had been aroused by the going of his old teacher of Zoology in Indiana University—David Starr Jordan—to the presidency of the newly established Stanford University.

After two years as a city superintendent of schools and just before the close of the nineteenth century, he metamorphosed into what was then a somewhat rare and more than doubtful variant of the fauna of the educational forest—an associate professor of education.

My first meeting with Cubberley took place thru the intervention of Henry Suzzallo, who, as many of you can well testify, has spent a good part of his useful life in little acts of personal kindnesses. Quite by chance, Cubberley and I had booked passage to Europe on the same steamer. Suzzallo saw to it that we met at the dock just before sailing. That was thirty years ago. Each of the intervening years has increased my personal admiration and my professional respect for him. He is the wise and gentle schoolman.

It is not possible in these brief moments to assess completely the services of Cubberley to American education. One may, however, readily detect his four-fold contribution.

He has been what may be called an *educational physicist*. In a characteristically clear and concise fashion he has formulated for all of us many of the more important general principles of social dynamics determining the operation of the educational system. He has not been a mere mechanism tinkering with the gadgets of the school machine. For him the school as a major social institution, cannot be understood excepting thru its historical evolution. To those of us who gained our first insight of the continued organic development, thru the ages, of educational institutions and of controlling educational ideas and ideals from his *Syllabus of the History of Education*, the versatile productivity of this scholar of education was not surprising. With the dispassionate attitude of the true scientist, he has explored, surveyed, and promoted the professional colonization of every important field in the history and administration of American education. Where is there a student of the fundamental problem of educational finance who does not refer to his *School Funds and Their Apportionment*. Who wrestles with the ever lively question of the certification of teachers and does not consult his volume on that subject. No one more than he has more constructively analyzed the age-old problem of the rural school. Every phase of the organization and control of public schools has been enriched by his investigating mind.

He has been, too, what may be called a skilful and sympathetic *educational physician*. The record shows the countrywide number of states, counties, cities, and institutions whose educational ills he has diagnosed and for which he has written health making prescriptions.

If the account were to be balanced, Cubberley's real worth will be found not in his work as an educational physicist, not as an educational physician, not as a promoter of the literature of education, as evidenced thru his editorship of more than a score of notable professional volumes in the Riverside Series of textbooks in education. Above each and all of these are his achievements as a pedagog. He has been, and yet is, a teacher of inspiring distinction. At Stanford University, he has created a school of education of far-flung influence. Of vastly greater significance is the fact of his creation of a school of educators. His students, serving as they are in a multitude of places of power, are the living proofs that he is not an *individual*, but an American *institution*.

As I review the professional services of Ellwood Cubberley, I marvel at the versatile productivity of his scholarly mind. Thru him education has gained a new place and new dignity in the company of learning. He has been the creative teacher of a goodly portion of the leadership of American education today. Thru him *Administration* has come to be what it really is—the *effective application of human leadership*.

Cubberley may best be characterized as a *Foundationalist*. By this I mean his life-long insistence that the concept of the state and the concept of education are inseparable. He has more clearly than anyone else insisted upon those conditions that must be met if the political state is to serve the human school, and if the humanities of the school are to become the habits of the state. Here is the foundational problem of our craft and our cause.

The struggle about Education today is between the conservatives who want to raid the school because of 1929, and the conservationists who are determined to raise the school because of 1933, and the years after.

Giving way to the pressure of those mysterious and deceiving forces, once thought to belong to progress, mankind finds itself today on the outer rim of that known region called civilization. We realize that we are on a new frontier, and are faced with new barriers to our action and to our thinking.

Whatever be our station, whatever be our abilities as tested in the past, whatever be the quality of our aspirations, there is little chance at this moment that any of us can escape the deep feeling of having been trapped by a destructive cross fire of strange economic and social forces. These traps are our crises. If we are to continue to have the part of the selected and the accepted leadership of American education, what are the new obligations resting upon us? This is a question to be answered in terms of reason rather than by rhetoric. Upon the immediately practical answer we give and the actions we take will depend the continuance of the confidence of those who have been led to believe in us. Crises such as the present are the tests of the worth of any leadership.

There are at least four interrelated crises of American public education, the responsibility for the meeting of which cannot be evaded by those who presume to direct our public education. These are the Crisis of Educational Equality, the Crisis of Work, the Crisis of the Layman School Officers, and the Crisis of the New Loyalty.

For more than a hundred years, the people of the United States have pioneered in the great human undertaking of free education. By means of the free public school system, they have striven to give reality to that fundamental element of American democracy expressed by the phrase, "equality of educational opportunity." School people have long recognized how far we were from any satisfactory realization of this goal. During the first quarter of this century, there was a new crusade to make educational opportunity mean "maximum educational opportunity." Here on the new frontier of civilization the old and the new limitations of our basic educational principle are clearly revealed.

No greater responsibility rests upon the leadership of American public affairs than that of reexamining the doctrine of the equality of educational opportunity and redeclaring its fundamental social meaning.

Let us not be deluded into thinking the battle for the *equality of opportunity* in the school has been won. More and more frequently as the economic stress continues and increases, men of moment, long steeped in the sound American traditions, are expressing doubt, and even open opposition to the completely organized system of free education. When a dominating figure in the affairs of one of our great eastern states publicly announces his opposition to any education at public expense below the age of six years or above the age of eighteen years, when an influential member of the legislature of another great state argues with force and persuasion that the elementary school only should be the extent of the state's responsibility, when an organization of no mean influence includes in its plan of economic reform a teacher wage of one dollar per day, we are made aware that there is new work before us.

If the American way of life is to be followed in the years immediately ahead, then the mind of the American people must be revitalized to the end that the principles of equal educational opportunity may not be destroyed in the economic maelstrom. Eternal vigilance may be the price of liberty. An unending sacrifice is the ultimate cost of that foundation stone of democracy called free education.

The founders of our republic conceived education as a prize political necessity. Our generation has been compelled to conduct education as an essential part of our economic life. We have learned that there can be no semblance of equality of educational opportunity without occupational training and education. Now that the jobs in the world are jumbled and in all likelihood permanently diminished in number, it is all the more demanded that youth be rightly trained for whatever individual work is to be done. Otherwise it is merely an empty sentimentality to talk about education for citizenship or education for character. Such widespread unemployment as we now have in the country is a stupendous national problem. Yet widespread employ-

ment of the coming generation at the wrong sort of jobs might easily be a national spiritual disaster. The relation of education to the bread winning work of life is more than ever a critical and unsolved problem.

From the beginning, the government of the American school was an integral part of popular government. The controlling center of the American schools is to be found in the lay boards of education of the 145,000 school units and in the lay boards of trustees of the several hundred public higher institutions. As one observes the easy readiness with which a large number of the citizenry, charged with responsibility for the lay oversight of schools, retreat from their posts as defenders of the cause, one wonders whether there is not a tragic and immediate need for education. It should not be forgotten that boards of education are the instruments of the people rather than of the profession of education.

It is my seasoned judgment that the present crisis places squarely on the shoulders of the educational administrators of the country the responsibility for a careful, critical examination of the entire public educational system for the purpose of discovering objectively—not politically, nor emotionally—how far this system, all the way from the elementary school thru the public university and professional school, is actually and properly serving the economic, the political, and the cultural lives of our people; people who are living not in the past, nor in the future, but now.

We may wisely reconcile ourselves to the grim fact that the shrinkage of funds for public education is not merely temporary. In all likelihood this is to be a situation, more or less permanent, during the remainder of the professional lives of many of us. Yet, as we are compelled to retreat financially, should we not undertake to effect such reconstruction of our educational plans as will enable a more effective concentration of effort, in every grade of school, upon the minimum essentials of training?

There are grounds for the opinion that the vast majority of the lay boards of school officers in the country would enthusiastically welcome proposals calculated to simplify and intensify the manifold activities which have been built into the educational pyramid during the recent decades.

I may be wrong, and indeed many will immediately conclude that I am, but in the present peril, I am unable to rid my professional thinking of the conviction that a much larger share of the responsibility for the training of children must be assumed, directly, consciously, and intelligently, by the American home, and by American business and industry. Such an idea is not reactionary. Rather, in application, it would be a test of the strength of that individualism which has constituted the basis of the distinctiveness of our Americanism. The complete realization of the social theory of equality of educational opportunity may not be confidently expected from and thru the school alone.

For the past twenty years, and in particular, since the year of the war, we have heard much in this country of the baleful influence of agencies and doctrines inimical to American institutions. The hunting down of all of that which they termed some form of treason has been seriously undertaken by

those who considered it an essential duty of patriotism to stamp out all destructive opposition to the existing political, social, and economic orders.

One encounters on every side today sharp opposition to government, its cost and the accompanying bureaucracy. Without question the times demand a reduction in the expenditures for public activities. That this must be accomplished with discriminating and intelligent foresight goes without saying.

No public school, worthy of that name, either in times of prosperity or in times of poverty, is entitled to spend a single penny that does not directly serve the high purposes of its creation and its existence. No public school, worthy of the confidence of a free people, may fail to assume its full share of the burden of economic distress. These are practical moral axioms. Similarly, every rightly conducted public educational institution has an inherent right to be exempted from the invidious classification as a bureaucratic part of government. And its workers not placed under a cloud of criticism making them appear as unworthy beneficiaries of a governmental tax wrung from an unwilling and suffering people.

It may easily be that the most perilous of the problems growing out of the existing emergency is not that of reducing educational expenditures, nor that of limiting educational activities. Instead, this may take the form of undermining the confidence of our people in the fundamental worth of the principles embodied in the free school system. Less cash for education need not lead to less confidence in government.

We are entitled to doubt the quality of the loyalty of the many who, in this perilous hour and behind the camouflage of economy in government, seek to weaken the allegiance of the people of our states to the institution of free education. The combating of such subversive movements is not only a duty of educational leaders but an obligation of the loyalty that sees, in the equalized school, the only hope of the mass of our people for that civic security, that economic salvation, and that opportunity for living that are the very life of our democratic civilization.

GENERAL SESSION, WEDNESDAY MORNING, MARCH 1

The Improvement of International Materials for the New Frontier

THE SCIENTIFIC DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOK MATERIALS

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Many of the old unhappy practises, attitudes, and cleavages regarding textbooks are vanishing. There never was a time when school people and publishers were so closely in agreement upon essential attitudes. For example, two years ago the National Society for the Study of Education received with en-

thusiasm the report of its textbook committee—a report characterized by a new rapport between publishers and school people. Immediately thereafter the directors of the society took action which led to the creation of an organization of school men and executives of book companies known as the Buffalo Conference. It has held two annual meetings and will hold a third next summer. The common interests of these two groups are so numerous that free discussion is no longer avoided.

In further support of the contention that a better understanding is arising between educational people and textbook publishers I offer myself as an exhibit. The mere fact that an editor of a textbook house is asked to speak on this occasion suggests the real community of interests between publishers and purchasers of instructional materials.

Altho I am required by my topic to be scientific, I have ventured to refer to the human relationships involved in this question. The evaluation of textbooks merely as an objective procedure will lose most of its force and some of its science if these human relationships are disregarded. You cannot infallibly put good books into the classroom and certainly you cannot secure their effective use there unless you take full account of the interests, convictions, and even the prejudices of the people concerned.

I shall assume that evaluation as distinguished from development means the appraisal, the measuring, or the judging of textbooks after they have been placed on the market. The persons especially concerned are the school people. It is they who do the judging, and the normal motive for exercising this judgment is the need for selecting textbooks for adoption. It is true that evaluation has sometimes been carried on as a scholarly problem, but even then the purpose has been to provide tools or methods for use in a practical situation which calls for choosing the best from a number of competing books.

Sometimes score cards are used. I think a score card of some sort is desirable, even if it is no more than a series of topics to be thought about. But a score card does not insure scientific methods or results. Science calls for something more than an instrument. In the first place, the instrument must be a good one. In the second place, the instrument must be properly used—used so as to yield a valid measure. In the third place, the user of the instrument must have a scientific attitude.

Now it is not easy to make a good score card, and textbook committees soon discover this. They then cast about for a ready-made card and too often a friendly book man stands ready to provide one. Such a card is likely to omit items not applicable to his book and to over weight those on which his book stands high. The basis for weighing and even for selecting the items will probably be neither objective nor impartial; thus the first requisite for a scientific measurement—namely a scientific instrument—will be lacking. The committee must either make its own score card or adopt one from an unbiased source, probably with some modifications to meet local conditions. Almost any score card will be a good one if it is

open mindedly arrived at with a real knowledge of the schools concerned and of the purposes to be served.

A score card is not properly used when each committee member merely judges or guesses a number applicable to a given book under each rubric. Here, let us say, is a set of headings for use in appraising a series of language books. One heading is "provision for drill on matters of good usage." Let us suppose that the weight attached to this item is 150 out of 1000. Now the thing I deprecate is the turning of the pages of a book and guessing that it is worth 100 or 125 out of this possible 150. This seems to me to be indefensible either as common sense or as science. It would be better to count the number of drill exercises which meet a defined standard of quality. It would be still better to note the distribution of these exercises in various ways which the committee would set up after discussion. Under each rubric of a score card every reasonable effort should be made to base the ward upon objective facts. This may involve no small effort, but selecting textbooks is rightly regarded as important. It is so important that members of textbook committees should be given some sort of training for their task and should be allowed free time for it.

Again, a score card is not well used when the ratings for each item are merely added to produce a score for the book. Let us assume that a book has been rated under a dozen headings. To suppose that a rating for the book may be had by summing these ratings is childish. Some of the items are dependent upon each other. To some extent they tell the same story. To add the scores on two such items is a misrepresentation. The numbers we have attached to items A and B on the score card give each item all the weight it should have. To the extent that A and B tell the same story it is clear that the sum of their weights over emphasizes this story. Again, an item may be such that if you have a certain amount of it you have nearly all that is advantageous. Let me illustrate from a score card for predicting the success of teachers. One of the items is physique. Now a certain amount of physical fitness is absolutely necessary for success in teaching. If we are to allow a maximum of ten points for physique, something like four points for a given individual may be indispensable. Increments up to six or seven may rapidly increase the probability of teaching success, but robustness beyond seven contributes little or nothing. Probably the difference between the physique of a normally well-conditioned person and the physique of a Jim Thorpe or a Babe Didrikson would be of no consequence in teaching. Increases in this quantity mean increases in teaching ability only in its middle ranges. We cannot take care of this condition by anything so simple as adding up scores for a general rating.

Permit me to illustrate one other aspect of the question. A certain famous textbook score card gave a weight of 40 out of 1000 for the physical features of the books, namely to type page, illustrations, and binding. Now a book *could* be printed on wood pulp with no illustrations and with the pages merely stapled together. Such a book might be scored as low as 10 or even zero without much damage in the final rating. Such a book ought

obviously to be ruled out. Any proper use of a score card will provide for a minimum on each item below which a book will be disqualified no matter what its rating on other items may be.

I have suggested three essentials in scientific evaluation: first, a good instrument; second, its proper use; and, third, the presence of a scientific attitude. The greatest of these is the scientific attitude. It is greatest because without it neither of the other requisites may be assured. Granted a reasonable degree of technical competence on the part of a committee or access to good advice of a technical sort, a scientific attitude is so important that with it the committee will need little else and without it will be little the better for anything else. By a scientific attitude I mean open mindedness, freedom from prejudice, willingness to listen to all sides. I mean critical mindedness, the ability to distinguish the specious from the essential. I mean a preference for objective data and at the same time a willingness to entertain subjective data according to their importance. I mean a willingness to seek facts where they may be found, welcoming even the statements of book men instead of erecting a wall of pretended secrecy. I mean the drawing of no conclusions which the findings do not warrant. Such an attitude is a directive influence. It colors and conditions every act and goes further toward guaranteeing the integrity of the result than any other consideration.

I now wish to refer to a rather remarkable evaluation of textbooks which occurred in connection with an important adoption of arithmetic books. A score card was employed, and this score card was notable in that it betrayed little internal evidence of bias toward any particular book. If I were merely to read its major topics most of them would seem rather ordinary. Such things appear as problem material, processes, drill, diagnostic and remedial features, provision for individual differences and physical features. It is not until one considers the long list of sub-items, many of which are themselves subdivided, that one realizes the thoroughness with which this instrument permits the examination of arithmetics. Moreover, two or three of the main heads are worth mention even apart from their sub-divisions.

One of these is informational arithmetic, defined to include materials where emphasis is placed upon understanding, interpretation, and use rather than upon processes and skills. Another is balance, defined as the proper proportioning of materials. Another is vocabulary and sentence structure—a heading which deserves far more detailed attention than it usually gets.

The particular evaluation of textbooks to which I am referring was remarkable not alone because of the measuring instrument employed, but because of the commendable way the committee used this instrument. It did not rely upon guesses or even upon discussion, where the most vociferous often win the votes. It sought objective information under most of the headings of the score card. For example, one of its fourteen objective studies related to the heading—diagnostic and remedial features. The sub-committee which made this study did not fail to distinguish between what

is named diagnostic in the textbook and what is really of that character. Mere drill material and review exercises are often called diagnostic because the term has a certain vogue. The committee set up its criterion for exercises of this sort and then proceeded to count the occurrence and note the distribution of such exercises in each of the competing books. It was then in a position definitely to state the number of tests and test items which met its definition for diagnostic and remedial material. Several other considerations ought to enter here besides the number of these tests and items, and whether or not the committee gave weight to them I am not informed. The point which I wish to make is that in one essential particular, namely the quantity of material of a definitely defined sort, there could be no dispute. This seems to be much better than merely arguing about something which can be determined beyond the need of argument.

I wish to allude to a promising method which is being increasingly employed by school people in evaluating books. It is a method which I understand publishers are, in general, glad to have employed. If a city is contemplating the adoption of a history for the fourth grade, it purchases thirty-five or forty copies of each competing book which it cares to consider. Each of these sets is then used in a class, and judgment is based, at least in part, upon the satisfaction which these books give. I do not need to point out to you that this sort of competitive tryout may be well or poorly conducted. All the elements which enter into scientific method have application here. Special care to hold constant the immaterial variables—the considerations which would spuriously affect the result—should, of course, be exercised. Care should likewise be taken to base the final appraisal upon conditions which are really important and which are uniformly and fairly applied.

I must now say something about the other part of my double-headed subject, namely, the scientific development or *making* of textbooks. This is the joint task of author and publisher. Something, whether it is science or common sense or intuition, has caused school books to improve vastly during the past twenty or twenty-five years. The textbook is undeniably a better teaching instrument today than it has ever been. It does things that the books of earlier days never even attempted. In its treatment it dares to be free to a degree that never used to be allowed. Its greater length (made possible by better teaching of reading) permits the inclusion of attractive approach, concrete data, episodes, illustrations, applications, comparisons, summaries—in short the inclusion of all the characteristics of the best books of any sort. Textbooks have become less “textbookish.” In the old days no one ever read a textbook unless he had to. Now the textbook need not be dull to be acceptable. How far is this due to science? No one can be sure, but it is an interesting coincidence that the era of the modern textbook corresponds pretty closely to the scientific era in education.

One of the ways in which the publisher secures scientifically-made textbooks is by selecting authors who will furnish that kind of material. The

better authors in these days know the literature of their field. Moreover they are either teachers of the subject at the level for which the book is furnished or they have studied the needs of students of that level. They know what has been tried and found good. They have frequently published articles and monographs on important aspects of the subject or of its teaching. Much, therefore, of the matter which they will put into their books will in the very nature of the case be scientifically grounded. In fact no series of maneuvers however scientific if made merely *ad hoc* can take the place of the slowly matured judgment of the author who has studied and taught his subject to the point of mastery.

On the other hand well-grounded knowledge is distressingly spotty and insufficient. The textbook writer must cover a broad field. He often needs to secure definite knowledge for the purpose of making the text. This is particularly true in the case of a relatively new subject or when new outcomes from old subjects are sought, or when specific applications of established principles are to be made to new material.

Consider, for example, an author who is preparing a set of readers for the grades. Suppose that she—I am thinking of a woman in this particular instance—wishes above all other considerations to make the reading matter interesting to the pupils. She has the studies of Jordan and Dunn and Hosic. These will give her the qualities which stories ought to possess if they are going to appeal to children. From these studies she can also identify particular stories which have the desired appeal. But there are not enough of these and they have all been used frequently. A new set of readers, if it is to be justified, should contain new materials.

Accordingly, in the instance which I have in mind, a definite and prolonged effort was made to furnish on a research basis the type of material which the author had in mind. The query was, "What do children like to read?" In order to afford an answer, many teachers recorded the spontaneous questions of children concerning their environment. Moreover, seven subjectmatter specialists each prepared 100 questions which he thought were important, interesting to children, and not generally answered so that children could get the meaning. Several thousand pupils were then asked to indicate which of these questions they would like to have answered. Then well-written stories or informational pieces were prepared to answer the questions which came out on top in point of interest to the children. Finally these pieces were tried out, first, thru adult judgment and, second, thru trial in classrooms. The result of all this was a body of material which without question possessed the one quality which the author wished it to possess, namely, interest for children.

Another way in which authors and publishers assure themselves that their offerings are appropriate is by actual tryout in the classroom. Sometimes, the author teaches his book in mimeographed form. On the other hand, he may secure the tryout of his material—by having them printed on his own initiative and by having them used in as many schools as are willing to purchase them. Such a method was employed on a large scale in the case of a

social-studies series. In recent years the scientific tryout of materials has sometimes meant that the publisher has issued in printed form an experimental edition. This method was used with notable success a few years ago in the case of a series of arithmetics. Not only was an experimental edition of the series tried out extensively, but special forms were employed for securing the reactions of teachers as they used this trial edition.

These experimental editions, whether prepared by the author or by the publisher, are extremely expensive. It is a question whether at the prices now charged for textbooks such a procedure can become at all general; yet it is highly desirable that it should become general. I have sometimes imagined a great publishing house organizing its own school for testing purposes. Such a school might even carry its own financial weight if it were staffed with excellent teachers and made so attractive that people would be willing to pay rather high tuition rates. With such a school a publisher could go a long way toward guaranteeing his product, somewhat as a manufacturer of rubber tires or of typewriters may guarantee his product thru testing. Such a dream may not come true in my day, but I am convinced that I have often dreamed more idly.

Publishers sometimes develop important tools to aid them in editorial work. I have in mind a very extensive investigation which eventuated in a graded list of some 15,000 words. In fact the grading went farther than the mere word form. Anyone who stops to think about the matter will agree that our numerous word lists have centered attention upon a mere visual or auditory symbol when attention should in reality be centered upon meaning. For example, children probably learn in different grades a *deck* of cards and the *deck* of a ship, a person's *lap* and to *lap* milk, a *scale* on which you weigh things and a *scale* of a fish, not to mention still other kinds of *scales*. Indeed this matter of different meanings assumes large importance in textbooks on particular subjects. For instance, there are the special geography meanings of *pole* (not of wood), *coast* (not on a sled), *cape* (not to be worn), *race* (not to be run). In history *period* does not mean something you put after a sentence, a *date* is not fruit, and a *party* is not a social gathering. By using a list which assigns on a reasonably satisfactory basis each of about 20,000 meanings as expressed by English words, it has been found possible to improve the adjustment of books to the grades for which they are intended.

The making of a textbook includes its manufacture as well as its writing and editing. It will interest you to know that certain publishers are co-operating in research concerning the type page. Investigations of this sort have hitherto been carried on by psychologists and students of education. Their results have been conflicting, due in part to a failure to understand the technical problems involved. It is not too much to believe that the outcome of the experiments which the publishers are conducting will be advantageous to the schools and to their budgets.

Frontier thinking in education gets its greatest effectiveness thru the textbook. In making that statement I use the term "textbook" in a broad sense. I mean printed instructional materials. I am not limiting myself to the idea of one bound volume for each pupil in each so-called subject. Textbooks themselves will change, the way of using them will change, the making and judging of them will change. These changes will occur, not only in response to frontier thinking, but as a means of making it real among us.

In the *Teachers College Record* two months ago Doctor Harold Rugg reported concerning the Sixth World Conference which met at Nice last summer. What is the program of this conference? What ideals, what frontier thinking, do they advance? Here are a few items: Organize the program (of education) around modern modes of living. Present to our youth an honest and courageous description of the new civilization and the . . . trends thru which it has developed. Give people practise from infancy to old age in reviewing evidence, drawing conclusions from data, and discussing proposed alternative solutions.

These are challenging proposals. How can they be realized? An annual council held in Europe will not do it. The pulpit, the platform, and the daily press will not serve the purpose. Books for home reading will not suffice. The school is the only agency big enough for the job, and in the school the concrete means will be the textbook. Introduced in early days to support the short-comings of all but the most gifted teachers, the textbook is needed for that purpose more today than ever before. Teachers are vastly better now than they used to be, but frontier thinkers are moving so rapidly that teachers in general are farther behind their best thought than they have ever been. No community, committed to universal education, can possibly command enough teachers of first-rate ability to realize its aspirations. There will always be need of instructional materials. Except thru their use, we know of no other way to keep in sight of our frontier thinkers. Teach pupils to read well and to think. With that accomplished, the textbook becomes the surest guarantee that the children of the common people can get the education which modern life demands.

CURRENT ISSUES RELATING TO THE CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

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Shall our schools deal with the current, live, vital issues that face humanity today in its everyday living? Shall the curriculum include a forthright consideration of the reasons for unemployment and other maladjustments in our present economic situation? Shall it deal with the *laissez-faire* versus a planned-economics question? Shall it deal with the international relations problem? In other words: Shall our schools deal with issues?

This is no simple question. It raises a point of view that is contrary to the traditional function of schools. Thruout the centuries in which the evolution of our society was transpiring very slowly, solutions to the problems of living were to a high degree constant in nature from generation to generation. The preparation of the young for adult life consisted mainly of transmitting to the young the accumulated solutions of the social heritage. The social heritage was to a great extent a storehouse of ways of reacting to situations, which situations, and consequently the ways of reacting to them, remained practically constant. This was true, at least for some thousands of years; and during this long period schools, insofar as they existed at all, were for the purpose of assisting in transmitting these ways of reacting, these solutions to the problems of living, from one generation to the next.

The implication for curriculum content was that the thing to be taught was a program of ready-made solutions to the problems of living. The way a father carried on his farming operations or his simple life as a tradesman would work for his boy when he became a man. The specific standards of good citizenship of today would hold good tomorrow. What the young needed to learn was what had worked. The adult life of the child could be accurately predicted, for the simple reason that life was not changing in any fundamental way. It was only natural that the curriculum was made up mainly of ready-made solutions which would guarantee success for the future of the child provided he learned them and practised them well. What the schools should teach, then, in this kind of situation was almost automatically determined.

On the side of teaching method the implication was quite as definite. The solutions that were being handed down to the young had been sanctioned by generations and even by centuries of experience. Anything that has worked well for centuries carries tremendous sanction back of it. Nothing succeeds like success. When certain solutions continue to work thru generation after generation, they come to be accepted with very little questioning. Only the eccentric mind that shows up here and there tends to question such a program. It logically follows, then, that the method adopted for teaching such solutions is a method that approaches pure indoctrination, as far as it is psychologically possible to do so. The child is taught that the solution the school is presenting is not only the correct one, but that it is a sin for anyone to question its correctness. The objective is to get the child to accept the solution as quickly as possible and as thoroly as possible, and questioning interferes with this process. The successful teacher in such a philosophy of education is one who most quickly and most thoroly causes pupils to conform to the system of habits and series of tenets contained in the curriculum. Teaching becomes a definite process of imparting particular ways of doing.

Out of this background come our traditions with reference to the nature of schools. Schools have traditionally been for the purpose of teaching solu-

tions by indoctrination methods. Let us keep this in mind as we approach the present situation, and let us also keep in mind as a parallel consideration that traditions resist change. Historically that is what they are for. As so clearly pointed out by Dewey in his *Human Nature and Conduct*, we are here talking about the stubborn side of human nature, the side that is hardest to change. It takes a long time for the human race to get a fundamental idea, and what it takes so long to get it will not give up easily. In any fundamental sense, mind changing is very difficult.

Now we come to the present situation in which our schools exist. What is it? Far be it from me to try to analyze it in any comprehensive fashion. But one thing that I do know about it beyond any doubt is that it is no longer a static civilization in which we live. It is one of change.

What does this mean for the program of solutions which was worked out on the basis of an unchanging order, one in which the same situations kept repeating themselves from generation to generation and therefore called for the same solutions over and over again? Surely no one would argue that conclusions reached as to ways of reacting could remain valid after the conditions that gave rise to them have changed. Yet a period of change, such as that in which we now seem to be, creates precisely this inconsistency between many traditional solutions and present life problems. We find ourselves left with a vast store of formal concepts, habits, and the like, from which the realities that gave rise to it have departed. The new realities are as yet so dimly perceived that we have come to no general agreement concerning how to react to them; and so, with Hamlet, we would "rather bear those ills we have than fly to others that we know not of." In other words, we have no social sanction upon a program of solutions to our new social problems. By way of emphasizing this fact, may I submit the following questions:

What is the solution to the economic problem today? Shall we revert from our present industrial order to some simpler life such as the agrarian civilization? Or shall we take charge constructively of the power which science has given us, manage it successfully, and go ahead to new eras?

If the answer to this question is Yes, then the next question is How? If we are to go ahead, shall we consider the function of government today to be the same as it was in the preceding agrarian civilization? If not, in what ways and in what particulars is it different in an industrial civilization?

Is individualism as evolved in the agrarian civilization practicable today? If not, does the industrial type of civilization imply the loss of the individual? If so, obviously we should have to reverse our direction at once. If not, what is the new type of individualism to be?

These questions are merely suggestive. They could, and should be broken into thousands of more specific questions if they are to be included as curriculum content in our schools. The point I am intending to emphasize here is that we do not have socially sanctioned solutions to these questions at the present time. An individual may have what he thinks is

the solution to any one or all of them; but obviously we are living in an age in which society is in a period of transition, and for the moment, at least, it does not know what to do about these questions. So far as it does offer us its sanction upon curriculum content, it is upon the side of sticking to the obsolete. We, therefore, have two alternatives before us with reference to what curriculum content shall be. One is to continue to teach the irrelevant, and the other is to introduce in a direct and comprehensive manner the study of issues for which solutions are being sought. To the extent that we insist upon the former, we shall make of the schools not merely an inconsequential, albeit expensive enterprise, but a serious obstacle to the social adjustments that so obviously need to be made. To the extent that we follow the second alternative, that of dealing with new realities in the field of social problems which call for new concepts and ways of reacting, there is hope of making our schools vital factors in social progress.

If it is decided that we shall introduce in a forthright, comprehensive manner the consideration of controversial issues in this period of transition, then let us realize that we shall be doing something in our schools which has never been done in any extensive way before in the history of education. To me, it is obvious that whether we are in a period of transition from a previous relatively static order to a future relatively static order; or whether we are in the beginning of a continuous process of rapid change, we seriously need to deal frankly with the current social problems that now perplex us to the end of working out some generally accepted way of reacting to them.

If such new curriculum content be brought into our schools, let us see what is implied on the side of teaching technic. I have attempted to point out that in the old order a definite concept of teaching as indoctrination, pure and simple, was evolved and became the traditional method of teaching. Now I wish to raise the question as to how this method of teaching would fit in with a consideration of issues as such. The answer is not at all. I am not saying that we could, or should, eliminate indoctrination altogether from our schools. I am simply saying that indoctrination as a method of teaching is incongruous to a study of current issues. For any specific act of indoctrination is predicated upon the existence of a solution, and a solution ends an issue, at least for the time being. In general, we would not be permitted to indoctrinate our pupils with reference to solutions to those phases of the economic problem, the problem of government, the problem of international relationships for which there are no socially sanctioned solutions. If we are to take up a consideration of current issues in our schools, if we are to proceed upon the assumption that the problems of life are calling for new solutions, we shall have to make a radical change in our method of teaching. Indoctrination, as a basic concept of method, will have to give way to an inquisitive attack upon problems yet unsolved, teacher and pupils working cooperatively in the attack. The classroom must become a place where questions are studied rather than answered, a situation in which analyses and comparisons of data are carefully made and

such progress accomplished toward tentative decisions as working bases, as maturity of pupil and information available may seem to justify.

It is obvious, then, that to make such departure from the traditional content and method of the school curriculum as would be represented by an earnest, comprehensive classroom attack upon controversial social issues requires that some authoritative decision be made that it be done. How is such a decision to be made?

To my way of thinking, the approach to this decision must be made thru a program of adult education. We shall have to go directly to our adult citizenship and raise the question, What are the schools for? What are they for, in the light of the facts of our new economic order and the kind of transition period in which we seem to be? This is an opportune time to raise this question and call for a revaluation of school objectives. In times of prosperity it is difficult to secure adequate attention from the lay public to go fundamentally into such a question. Of course, even now we cannot expect our adult citizens to come to school in a formal way in order to be taught something about this issue. That is not the concept of adult education here suggested. Rather it is that it may be practicable to conduct discussion forums in the various communities of our country in which this question can be frankly considered. It may be possible to secure the cooperation of the press in raising this question. Of one thing I feel sure. If that part of the press that is continually using its tremendous power merely to tear down the schools of our country were to address itself to an earnest effort at reconstruction within the school program itself, it could lay some claim to statesmanship in this very vital matter. So far, many of the most powerful newspapers, and even one widely read magazine, have given themselves over to mere tirades of negation, in some instances suggestive of mere senility of mind, and in others of that type of selfishness that always has opposed humanistic movements. But much of the press has been actively in support of education thruout the present depression. Most of it probably would give active support to any well-founded attempt by the profession of education to approach the public with questions seeking a review and a reconstruction of school objectives and methods.

The radio could surely be used to good advantage in presenting the various points of view incident to such an issue.

It is conceivable that the exigencies of our present social situation might, when thoroly considered, cause our adult citizenship to desire that the schools function, as far as at all practicable, to prepare the up-coming generation to deal more quickly and intelligently with the problems presented by a changing civilization than their forbears have been able to do. By no means would this objective rule out a study of the past, as some would immediately fear. On the contrary, it would accentuate interest in the genuine historical approach to the understanding of current problems, and this would insure a purposeful study of the past, one that would have meaning for the pupil. The fact that there is now a sudden shifting of the scene of life which invalidates much in mere precedent as a guide for the

present, in no degree detracts from the importance of historical knowledge. We cannot know what traditional solutions to discard, what ones to modify and how much, unless we know what conditions gave rise to them, and how these conditions contrast to, or compare with present conditions. Not only an appreciation of the continuous elements of human experience, which are, in fact, the basis of civilization itself, but an appreciation of the contrasts between then and now, which is needed to stimulate pioneering, require a scholarly understanding of the past. Current issues cannot be constructively dealt with by people of meager background in terms of historical knowledge. No one is prepared to deal with the present who knows only the present. There is never any anchorage to such a person. All of this should be assumed as included in the curriculum as we discuss the question of bringing our schools into a more vital functioning with reference to the solution of current controversial issues. Once this objective for the schools is accepted by our adult citizenship, boards of education will reflect this point of view, and we can proceed to reform school procedures in consistency with it. This in itself will be no small task. Many changes in school procedures, involving the problem of adequate physical equipment, changes in attitudes of mind and technics of teaching, a different education for the teacher, and many other difficulties would have to be worked out.

With regard to curriculum materials much more reliance would have to be placed upon library service than we have ever thought of in any extensive way in our schools up to now. Such materials as books, reports, periodicals, magazines, newspapers, in great variety and abundance would have to be available. Such materials would have to be expertly selected in order to insure a fair representation of scholarly points of view and facts pertinent to the issues being studied. Reliance upon one textbook in the social studies or even a textbook plus a few so-called standard references in the school library would not be adequate. Vital, up-to-the-minute material would have to be available in sufficient quantity to make it immediately usable in the classroom. Classroom libraries in addition to the central, general school library would be necessary. To organize the kind of library service in connection with a school that would be necessary to carry this out efficiently would in itself be no simple task, quite aside from the question of cost of materials. Such obstacles would be quickly overcome if our adult citizenship were brought to see the importance of this and should decide upon its being done in our schools.

On the side of method, teachers would have to develop great skill in effecting a scholarly development of the various considerations pertinent to any particular issue. Departure would have to be made at once from the immediate teaching of solutions. The whole procedure would be based upon the understanding that as yet no workable solution has been found; and until one has been found, the process has to be one of study rather than one of teaching in the traditional sense. I realize this may seem to some like a dilatory, colorless method of teaching; but my contention is that we must, in a period of transition when vital issues are perplexing mankind, study

issues rather than teach solutions, because no socially sanctioned solutions are available. As the study of an issue carried on not only in the schools but also by our adult citizenship results in solutions that may be accepted, at least tentatively, teaching method might, and probably would, pass over into the teaching of solutions. No solution should be accepted as final. This implies the continuous remaking of issues out of old solutions, as well as new issues which may arise from other angles.

If we are to have a changing civilization, we should accept the continuous study of issues as a major consideration in both curriculum content and method of teaching in our schools, albeit we do wish to make decisions as we go along and to teach the validity of those decisions to a certain extent, the extent to which they secure social sanction. One phase of the modern school curriculum, then, might come to be a study of issues and the other the teaching of solutions that are, for the time being at least, accepted as working bases.

In addition to the vast enrichment of curriculum materials which would be required by such a program and the radical change in teaching method required by it, it is definitely implied that the teacher in such a program would have to be a zestful and capable student of social problems. Teacher training would have to change to teacher education. There would be great danger of the most chaotic and superficial condition in our schools, were the highest standards of scholarship with respect to social intelligence to be overlooked in the preparation and appointment of teachers. The kind of program being considered here is the kind that only the teacher of genuine scholarship can make function constructively. It is a big order, but what a challenge! Why should not we professional school people desire to see such a change occur in our schools? Would it not be far more interesting for us to be right in the middle of the main current of life, battling with the elements and helping to direct the current constructively, as contrasted to being off to one side in one of the eddies, peacefully floating around, having nothing much to do with the main part of the stream, becoming mentally and physically lazy and stagnant. Nature grows scum over water that is never stirred.

If we are to bring the schools into this vital relationship to current issues of life, we shall have to take a vital part in the affairs of life ourselves, and bring our adult citizenship to desire, even to demand this kind of program in its schools. Much can be done even under present circumstances to vitalize the content of our school curriculums and our methods of teaching, and much is being so done, but it is far from sufficient at best. It is my contention that a forthright and comprehensive attack on the vital issues that face us in this critical and most interesting transition period cannot be made purely upon the motion of professional school people themselves. A broad social sanction will be necessary for this kind of attack.

I have not intended to make the impression that I am claiming that the whole of school life should be given to a study of social problems. I have

been speaking of a center of emphasis, or what might be called a core curriculum, to which in some way or another everything taught in schools would be related. Studies of the problems of production and distribution of economic goods, international relationships, and governmental services would, by no means, exclude studies in music, painting, and the fine arts generally, vocational training, and education in many other areas of life. What I have said does imply that the social studies program would be the center of school life, and the nature and scope of the problems brought up in it would vary in accordance with the experience levels of the pupils. I am convinced that by the time the high school is reached, a very comprehensive and rather thoro-going attack could profitably be made upon most of the social problems that so sorely vex us at the present moment. If this were done, I believe we would greatly speed up, thru the early introduction into our adult ranks of millions of young people educated under such a program, a much more satisfactory adjustment or synchronization of the various phases of our social process than could otherwise be effected. To effect this synchronization is the big challenge that faces the leadership of our society in general. Bringing the schools into a vital role in effecting such synchronization is the principal challenge facing the profession of education at this time.

FREEDOM FROM RED TAPE AND STATISTICS —A FRONTIER BLESSING

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With all of our admiration for the heroes of the American frontier, none of us would willingly live as necessity required them to live. The pooled experiences of mankind, scientific experimentation and research, and specialization of effort have combined immeasurably to raise the standard of comfort, security, and prosperity for the mass of our citizenry. Whether in the evolution we have sacrificed the frontier virtues of individual initiative, courage, and independent thinking for the benefits of a greater material prosperity is a question which is raised with increasing frequency. The answer most often heard to such a question is that, after all, individual opinion is less valuable than demonstrated truth. In industry, commerce, and government and education we are asked to believe that scientific research is the strong support upon which we should rely, rather than upon individual conviction. I would not be misunderstood in the discussion of the topic assigned me as in any sense disparaging the incalculable value of genuine research. Neither can the intricate machinery of administration in any field of presentday activity be dismissed with casual generalities about red tape.

Attention may properly be called, however, to the difference in the methods of such original investigators as Columbus, Pasteur, and Edison, and the technic employed by some of those who masquerade today before the altars of educational research. It is not on record that the pioneer thinkers to whom

the world is so greatly indebted were bigoted believers in the tabulations of questionnaires. They recognized the limitations of the statistical method, and above all they realized that real progress requires something in addition to mere fact-finding. If Columbus had sent out a set of questions on navigation to all of the people of his time who had ever seen the sea, 99.5 percent of those receiving the questionnaire would have asserted their belief that the world was flat. Something more was required to discover America. It is always well to remember that a majority vote of the class in arithmetic is not required to determine the correct answer to a problem. Even if the subject being investigated has some promise of value, and this is not always the case, the only fact established by many of the innumerable questionnaires with which our profession is afflicted is that there is a considerable divergence of opinion among those who take the time to make answer. A tabulation of personal opinions and experience may or may not be interesting. It can scarcely be conclusive. It ought to be read with the frontier philosopher's warning clearly in mind. He said: "We must be careful not to get out of an experience more wisdom than there is in it. A cat who has sat on a hot stove lid will never sit on a hot stove lid again—but also she will never sit on a cold one any more."

The pioneer had mosquitoes but he was free from questionnaires. Neither was he greatly worried over per capita cost comparisons or statistical statements generally. He regarded statistics with suspicion. He wanted to know who made them and for what purpose. It was a typical product of the frontier who said that while figures might not lie, liars could figure; and while it was Talleyrand who coined the epigram that language was designed to conceal thought, it was a true son of the Middle Border who declared that statistics too often succeed in preventing it.

Thoughtful school men know that it is almost impossible to make a sheet of figures dealing with education tell the whole truth. Stipulating that they are honestly and intelligently made, which stipulation is frequently contrary to fact, it is impossible to make mere figures tell a complete story. They are instruments for the measurement of quantity only. To state that the average enrolment of pupils per teacher in a given school is 39.5 may be an accurate quantitative statement. It is a valueless statement until the terms "average," "pupil," "teacher," and "enrolment" are defined. After this is done and the honest application of a uniform formula is by some miracle assured, it still remains a statement from which deductions of any value must be drawn with great care. There is so much missing from the statement that one needs to know if it is to mean anything. In what grades are the pupils, what is their age, mental capacity, physical condition, what courses of study are being pursued, are the teachers experienced or inexperienced? All of these things and many more must be taken into account to give this particular statistic any true value. And yet there are still those who feel that necessarily something must be wrong if the statistics maker discovers that Puckering Valley, Ark., has an average enrolment of 44.7 while Gargle City, Pa., has only 43.8.

Few things right now would contribute more to an intelligent administration of educational affairs than a clear understanding on the part of everyone of the limitations of statistical methods. Boards of education and superintendents, confronted with the problems of operating a school system subject to the provisions of hundreds of pages of educational law, court decisions, local tradition, political pressure, journalistic interference, conflicting professional advice, overcrowded schools, civil service requirements, mandated salary schedules, permanent tenure, and restricted revenues, require something more in the way of relief and comfort than dubious per capita cost comparisons and uninterpreted, inadequate, and often misleading statistical statements.

Here and there people may still be found who believe, or affect to believe, that comparing per capita costs of educational service by cities really proves something. It would seem that even a wayfaring man ought to know that the chiefly important services rendered by the school are not *measurable* in the first place nor *uniform* in the second. We can *measure* how rapidly a child reads but not the discrimination with which he selects his books nor the appreciation with which he reads them. With what yardstick is the statistician to measure the service of the teacher in her effort to instill desirable attitudes of mind, capacities, tastes, and ideals? Every school man knows that the service rendered within two schools in the same city is not and ought not to be uniform. He knows that the services undertaken in no two cities are uniform. He knows that properly, and of necessity, service is conditioned upon the racial, social, and industrial needs of a community, and that an infinity of considerations outside his control prevents a standardization of these services.

As long as the educational services undertaken by our various cities are neither measurable nor uniform, an attempted comparison of their per capita costs can serve no largely useful purpose. The makers of such compilations may be merely statisticians in a happy state of nature, or even more possibly they may be special pleaders carrying on a propaganda under the awe-inspiring name of research. The school superintendent who joyously discovers in reading their latest compilation of hand-picked cities that his community is third lowest in per capita costs, may derive some temporary happiness from the comparison, but it will be only temporary. Even if he succeeds in getting his local newspapers to print the glad tidings, the owners of unnecessary office buildings and superfluous apartment hotels will still be unconvinced. There will always be those who believe that whatever the schools are spending is far too much. With the bonds sold for the construction of their buildings in default, and with their taxes in many cases unpaid, the only remedy for the situation which occurs to them is still further to reduce the purchasing power of faithful public servants. Statistical claptrap about per capita costs of education is one of the favorite weapons of people who subscribe to this formula.

And now a few words about red tape. No one will for a moment dispute the necessity for all reasonable safeguards against waste in the purchase, dis-

tribution, and use of educational supplies and materials. Let that be stipulated. No one disputes it. But any system, however businesslike it is alleged to be, which requires a principal to make out too many requisitions for a box of chalk or which involves the visa of too many different persons before a manual training teacher can secure a hundred feet of lumber, is itself wasteful and inefficient. It is not only costly in money but it is tremendously wasteful in its effects on the initiative and enthusiasm of teachers. Nobody ever won a ball game by card-indexing the bats or by computing the per capita expenditures for liniment. Doubtless it may be helpful for the school administrators to be at all times informed on the unit costs per building of chalk, kindling wood, and rat poison, but there are other and more important matters deserving consideration. Poor teaching methods and misdirected teaching effort have cost the taxpayers a thousand times more than all of the lost and wasted supplies and equipment put together. The absence of sufficient, wise, and competent supervision of instruction is the most extravagantly wasteful feature of our present educational organization, but the situation can neither be proved nor cured by statistics or cost accounting.

Just as real economy consists of something more than the mere non-spending of money, so does efficient school operation require more than bookkeeping. It requires primarily an intelligent faith in the fundamental purposes of public education and a defensible conviction as to what a minimum program of public education should include. It demands a mind alertly open to new truth but always aware of the difference between real progress and mere change. It presupposes an ability to distinguish education from propaganda. It requires a judgment as to what may be locally desirable which is not too easily upset by the ephemeral theories of alleged experts with no responsibility for results. It assumes an understanding of the fundamental difference between a private business whose success can be measured in terms of profit, and a public school system rendering a service which is not susceptible to statistical measurement. And above all it demands an enlightened public attitude on the problems of school administration. The traditional political atmosphere surrounding the operation of municipal services is far from healthful to the development of an efficient or economical educational system. If and where the public permits such an atmosphere to exist, it requires something more than elaborate statistical studies to correct it. To paraphrase Mr. Kipling:

"If statistics be the price of efficiency,
Lord, God! We have paid in full."

Multiplication of executive heads, the division of responsibility among an army of reviewing boards, the creation of a chaos of governmental machinery, cost-accounting bureaus, inspectors, auditors, and efficiency experts have all been tried. The net result suggests the regret of the colonial doctor who recounts how a certain worthy man was bled by four different expert surgeons within three days and yet "in spite of this the man did not recover."

What we most need right now is a revived emphasis on the frontier virtues of independent thinking, courage of convictions, initiative, and resourcefulness. Thousands of banks equipped with auditors and comptometers may close their doors, industrial plants with elaborate cost-accounting systems may go into bankruptcy, corporations with efficiency experts and production engineers may pass their dividends, but the school is expected to carry on. In such a situation the spiritual strength of the pioneer is too precious a heritage to be ignored. We can take full advantage of all that is really sound in genuine research and in improved business practise and still remember that statistics and red tape are poor substitutes for sincerity of convictions, independent thinking, and courageous defense of the purposes for which the schools were organized.

THE SCIENTIFIC DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF THE CURRICULUM

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I have a paper here but I think it is fair for me to depart for a time from the paper.

Some of us lived in those good pioneer days before 1897. Why do I mention that date? In 1897 an editor by the name of Rice went to the major school systems of the United States. He asked those in charge whether he might try a list of words with the children in the schools. They said, "Yes, very glad to have you, because spelling is one of the things that we do admirably in this school."

Up to that time, pioneer methods of teaching spelling had depended on courage and insight and enthusiasm—I wish I knew the rest of the words. Spelling was one of the great achievements of American schools, conducted by superintendents who knew exactly how to do it. Mr. Rice took these measurements of something which educators had not been able to measure up to that time, and he wrote an article in 1897 that has transformed instruction in American schools. The title of that article is "The Futility of the Spelling Grind." That was the first piece of careful statistical measurement of spelling in the United States or anywhere else in the world.

We cannot any longer make an attack on scientific methods without answering quite definitely the question, what is it that has made improvement in American education? That improvement has come from the application of the best scientific technics that could be devised. Whoever is willing to face the problem of improving those methods, let him come before us and tell us how to improve them. But to banish this scientific movement with any criticism of questionnaires, with any criticism of cost accounting, belongs back two decades.

I am asked to talk this morning on the science of education and its relation to the curriculum. Of course, there was a curriculum before there

was any science of education. The very first school that was established came into being because somebody had something to teach. The something taught was the curriculum. That teaching was done, at the outset, with great enthusiasm. It was done out of the meager resources of a human being who was eager to make improvement in civilization. But civilization has grown increasingly complex as the years have passed. It is no longer possible to determine either the content of the curriculum or its modes of procedure without careful checking of the results, and those results appear in the experience of the young people who attend the schools. It is possible to determine, with a very high degree of accuracy, how far the efforts of our educational group have been effective in changing the content of experience of these young people.

That original curriculum was devised without any careful, scientific inquiry. When the Puritans decided that they would establish on this continent a school somewhat different from the school that had been established in Europe for the common people, they did not determine their choices by any careful scientific measurement. They did the best they could, and it was not until that great leader in American education began to determine, with some degree of accuracy, what was happening in the schools of Massachusetts, I refer to the early years of Horace Mann's administration, that those pioneer efforts were called into question. Horace Mann made one of the first quantitative statistical statements made in the history of American education, when in 1838 he said, "I have canvassed the schools of Massachusetts, and I find under the antiquated methods of instruction employed in these schools that eleven out of twelve of the children fail to understand what they are reading because they have been taught merely to pronounce words." He criticized the method of instruction that had been in operation since the beginning of the modern period.

Horace Mann wrought one of the great reforms in American education because he went out and conscientiously determined, in the schools with which he had to operate, that there was a deficiency that could be stated in definite, quantitative terms.

Then comes the period of the great revival of American education. For years there had been complacency with regard to what we had been doing in American schools. There is that great epoch from the time of Horace Mann up to the period when the revival began, when men and women taught earnestly and eagerly in the schools. Their memory is sacred to us. But they did not have the instruments and devices for determining with any degree of accuracy what they were doing. The Herbartians came to us with suggestions from another land; Stanley Hall came to us with the eager desire to understand children better; John Dewey came to us with a careful analysis of society; Harris came with new modes of instruction and new contents. Charles W. Eliot gathered the Committee of Ten, and there was launched by 1890 an entirely new attitude in American education, and that new attitude began to spread, and the influence of it became

so great that we have to recognize the fact that there was a change from the old complacency which depended upon personal judgment to that type of comparative thinking and exact evaluation which was the dawn of a new era in American education.

The interesting point is that in the early days, most of the effect of this scientific study was negative because when you have a race which has been complacent about its modes of operation, has been depending upon its own independent judgment, the first thing that science has to do is to break down complacency. It took the decade of 1890 to 1900 to change the attitude of American people with regard to the effectiveness of the schools that they had been assuming were being conducted as they should be.

That decade of 1890 to 1900 is a period of great agitation in American thinking and in American education, and, as I have already indicated, just at the end there was devised by the genius of Rice a new method of determining whether our work is effective or not. Now we come to the first fifteen years of this century, and again we find that many of the results of the early measurements were negative, for the simple reason that there was inefficiency in our teaching.

Rapidly during those first fifteen years, the science of education made progress and established the measurement movement, and again and again it was said that there were features of the school work that could not be measured. I remember distinctly when it was said you could not measure the results of reading; when it was said that you could not determine anything about the competence of children by measuring the rate at which they read; when it was said you could not evaluate that type of thinking which you cultivate in arithmetic, which you call the ability to think with precision, because that is something you cannot measure.

It took us fifteen years to determine the fact that you can quantitatively evaluate the work of the school in most of these lines. About 1915 you find the beginning of the survey movement, which was resented. It is indeed difficult to have your school systems surveyed and to find yourself confronted with one hundred recommendations for improvement. It is a trying experience to be subjected to the examination of your processes in the school by these methods of evaluation, but the survey method has established itself to the point where it has become routine. Here and there are established, in connection with the administrative offices of the great school systems in the states, agencies that shall continuously survey the work of the schools. If there has ever been one achievement of American education of which we ought to be proud, it is the fact that we have turned administration from mere observation into carefully recorded measurements of results. One of the great catastrophes that has come to us in these times of emergency and withdrawal of funds is that it has seemed to many lay people that it was entirely possible to dispense with those instruments of evaluation of the school work which have been so significant in recent years in changing the character and efficiency of American education.

Now, all this culminated, about 1915, in a demand that there should be a sweeping revision of the curriculum. Since that date, we have been working on the problem of trying to change the curriculum. Might I review one or two of the effective positive results that have come from these measurements.

Take the field of spelling to which I have referred. We used to get the spelling words out of the dictionary. We made up long lists that looked alike, that began with the same letter, or ended with the same syllable. We taught these to children, whether they had any value and significance for common life or not. There came that genius who, after making a survey of the school system and convincing himself and the community that it was quite impossible to go on teaching seventh-grade children this arbitrary list of words, went home to the Russell Sage Foundation and used the resources of that agency for finding out what are the thousand most common words in ordinary life. He laid down a principle which is quantitative, direct, explicit, the result of measurement, and he said, "These one thousand words that are most common should be the first to be taught."

What is the result? Generations of spelling books have disappeared. You cannot find a modern spelling book that is not based on the findings of that quantitative measurement carried on by Leonard P. Ayres in the Russell Sage Foundation. Not only that, but we have found it desirable to have exactly those determinations made not only in the spelling of the vernacular but in the vocabulary that is taught in foreign language. Not only shall we do it in foreign language with regard to vocabulary, but we have quantitative determinations of the idioms that are most common.

We have made similar progress in geography and history. All teachers have systematically collected material, in the past, for the courses of study which they administer, but there has never been a time when, with that definite outlook upon quantitative possibilities, we have so eagerly sought for the explicit material that must be included if we are going to have anything like a complete survey of civilization, and this has been done by quantitative methods. It has been done by scientific procedures that do not blush, as they present themselves to you, as the reformers of American education.

Let us now take some other illustrations, perhaps a little more subtle in character. We once taught reading in the schools, and we were enthusiastic about the reading that we taught. We remember the distinction that Horace Mann had drawn between spelling and the A, B, C method, on the one hand, and reading for meaning on the other. We had modified our school practise, but an obscure psychologist, determining the character of the reading process in his laboratory, working with methods that were quantitative but extraordinarily difficult, came to the conclusion, and almost timidly reported that conclusion in 1908, that there is a distinction between oral and silent reading, a distinction so fundamental in character that if you give instruction only in oral reading in the schools, you will fail to cultivate that power which will make the individual independent in his use of printed material.

Mr. Huey, that obscure psychologist, wrote a book on the psychology and pedagogy of reading.¹ The teachers at first, as they examined that book, said it was not very practical. They said that it was difficult to read. They said that there was too much theoretical psychology in it. A few years later the findings of Mr. Huey were verified and amplified in laboratories, where nothing but quantitative determinations made it at all possible to draw that distinction, with the clarity that it has been since 1912 and 1914. What is the result? You could not find a textbook handed to the children in the schools in 1908 that said a single word about silent reading. And, in 1933, I venture the statement that you cannot find a set of readers that does not, in the preface, say: "This book will help to train in the only form of reading which is fully fluent and that is silent reading."

There has come a distinction into our ordinary school operations that has been determined by quantitative, laboratory work, and I venture the statement that it will be quite impossible for the American school system to proceed on the basis of anybody's courage and accomplish a reform in instruction that remotely compares in significance with the change that has come thru laboratory investigations of the processes of learning.

I am enthusiastic about what the science of education has accomplished. I could go on and give you example after example, but you know, after all, the science of education is just like every other sincere enterprise. It is eager to amplify itself. It is eager to accomplish more and better results in the future than it has in the past.

I am very eager to take advantage of this opportunity to establish the right of the science of education to be recognized as one of the foundations of modern education. I am eager to secure, if possible, the cooperation of this great and influential group in seeing to it that we shall make progress. I am thru with the history. The history stands for itself.

What do we have to do in the future? The science of education has had meager resources. Here and there, in a few centers, it has been possible to carry on these laboratory experiments and these quantitative determinations. It has been extraordinarily difficult to get the means to make scientific investigations for the simple reason that the schools of the United States are eagerly concerned to carry on the routine of tomorrow's work, and no one understands better than I do the importance of seeing to it that that routine is carried on. But I make a plea for resources that shall amplify the base and understanding of that routine.

We have had a science of education that has dealt primarily with the problems within the school. That is where the science of education naturally began. It measured spelling; it measured arithmetic; it measured all the operations, little by little, making progress and securing devices that were reliable.

But now the time has come, and certainly this session of the Department of Superintendence has made it clear that the time has come, when we shall

¹ Huey, E. B. *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*. New York: Macmillan, 1908.

have to amplify the science of education by including within its scope those related sciences that tell about society in general. We can no longer conduct schools merely by dealing with the internal processes. It is important and significant that we take cognizance of the large range of social relationships, in the midst of which the school must carry on its operations.

I am very eager that this country should realize the fact that the science of education, which is one of the unique contributions of American civilization to scientific thinking, a unique contribution because in the older civilizations schools are official. There is no such opportunity, as there is in our land, for a comparison of results, for an evaluation of what we do, by sincere and exact comparison of the outcome of our work.

It is not the desire of anyone who pursues scientific studies in education to make everybody uniform, but it is the desire of all those who study the science of education to have a perfectly clear and definite understanding of the deviations that we justify when we depart from the uniform practises. We ought to have a clear understanding of the fact that the full science of education needs the enthusiastic support of those who are conducting the greatest educational systems of this country, and we need that support in order that we may make these curriculum studies in a new fashion.

What do I mean? The science of education, this unique something, has been pushing us steadily in the direction of a realization of the fact that the curriculum of American schools is relatively meager. We are not producing, as a result of our educational effort, those results in social understanding which we ought to be producing. And we are not producing those results for the simple reason that the school has been relatively aloof. The school has felt itself as something divided from the other agencies of government. The school has attempted to carry on its operations, as we have frequently said, without interference, and the result is that this country is gradually dividing itself into those who seek intelligence and operate in their lives thru intelligence, on the one hand, and those who carry on the public services of this country for motives that cannot be subjected to definite and quantitative evaluation. The time has come when the schools will have to begin to assume leadership in the definite, explicit guidance of our people, in the direction of a clear understanding of those civic movements and those governmental agencies which must be improved if our civilization is to stand.

How shall we do this? We must put into the schools, and we must do it soon, the results of those social sciences that are related to, and part of, the general movement to which the science of education belongs. Do you know that even our higher institutions were never teaching any of these social sciences until the middle of the eighties? And do you know that when we first had courses in economics, sociology, and political science, exactly the criticism was made of those sciences that you sometimes hear made of the science of education? It was said, "These sciences are interfering in some fashion with the autonomy of individual enthusiasms." It was said, "These are troubling us in business and government." But little by little

we have refined those social sciences until now we begin to see, in spite of the difficulties that are ahead of us, some of the great movements that are necessary if we are to make American government and American social life effective. The science of education is only one of a whole group of sciences. We ought to bring it to pass that in the schools there shall be more attention to social matters, there shall be a scientific understanding of the kind of life into which young people are to move, and there should be, because of that scientific understanding, a better arrangement of the materials of instruction, a better organization of the curriculum itself.

I make a plea for a scrutiny of the curriculum which shall discover the deficiencies in that curriculum from the point of view of quantitatively determinable deficiencies in the type of intelligence cultivated by our young people. You can go out and determine, with a degree of vividness that is astounding, the lack of knowledge that we have on social matters among the children in our schools.

Rather lately a careful study was made in the city in which I live. The young people in the sixth grade were asked to answer some simple questions. It was a test. It was a quantitative determination. It was an evaluation of American education. It was found that these young people are so grossly ignorant on some of the most fundamental social matters that it is perfectly clear that our schools have not been doing what they ought to do in this field, any more than they were doing back in 1897 what they ought to have been doing about spelling. There is no escaping the conviction that we have not been giving the type of instruction about social matters that we ought to be giving. The only way to get that clearly before all of us is to show it in clear, quantitative, definite terms, and it has been shown.

We are going to change the curriculum in the future through careful, scientific scrutiny of the contents of the curriculum and its deficiencies, and we are going to modify those deficiencies by the best exercise of scientific intelligence that can be brought to bear on the problems of curriculum construction. We are going to put into the schools a new type of thinking for these young people, and we are going to find a place for this new material, if necessary, by cutting off some of those traditional hours that have been given to this or that or the other subject because somebody thought that was the way to do the business. We are going to make these changes, because when we find deficiencies and realize that those deficiencies must be corrected, we will have to fit the new program into the length of time that we have available. We will have to measure with care and diligence where we can find places for this new material.

Where shall we find place for this new material? Sometimes we use the phrase "a core subject." We say we are going to put into the schools a core subject, which is the study of social relations. My plea is that we stop in the midst of our instruction in the various courses and see to it that these various courses are permeated by social instruction.

I have used with some of you an example that is so neat and compact and easy to describe in a few sentences that I venture to repeat it.

I went into a third grade some time ago and I found the children engaged in one of the most routine operations of the school, an exercise in penmanship. They were doing what third-grade children do. They were writing away. Some of them were not enthusiastic about what they were doing. They were carrying on a school exercise. The teacher stopped their handwriting exercise for a little while and she showed them some specimens of very bad handwriting that she had found in one of the books that described the handwriting of the period of Queen Elizabeth. From the point of view of the Ayres scale, it was dreadful stuff. She showed it to these third-grade children, and they knew it was poor because they had been using the Ayres scale.

She said, "Do you realize why that is so poor as handwriting? They did not have any suitable tools. They were writing with feathers. By the way, do you know that the word 'pen' carries in it the history of penmanship? It comes from the Latin 'penna', and it means a feather. Suppose you had to write with feathers. I venture to say your writing would be worse than it is now."

It was to those children a revelation of the reasons why in modern life we write so much better. We have good ink. We have good pens. We have good paper. Do you think those third graders went back to their penmanship exercise as they had left it before that fifteen minutes of interruption? Not at all. You could see them eagerly attacking a task of modern civilization. That teacher had done a grand piece of work in putting social implications into the most routine type of activity that the school has to carry on.

I like to see children get that same view with regard to all the other subjects. I attended a meeting of this Department yesterday in which I was informed by an enthusiast for something, I don't know what it is, that I had better not talk about arithmetic any more; therefore, I am going to talk about arithmetic.

Arithmetic can be made one of the most interesting social studies in the curriculum. It is that. The fact of the case is that in denominated numbers you teach children about very concrete social matters. Why does the government have charge of weights and measures? In France they tell the children about the government's relation to weights and measures. I sometimes think we might well pattern our curriculum, in part, on the French example. They tell the children something about the relation of government to these fundamentals of commerce and industry. They teach children about insurance, not as an example in arithmetic, but as a subject of the social sciences. I think that arithmetic could be made one of the most interesting fields of study to our young people if we could change our attitude and not to be concerned about teaching arithmetic, but be concerned about teaching civilization. You can teach the romance of where these numbers came from. You can begin relatively early to tell children that zero is one of the greatest creations of civilization.

There isn't a subject taught in the elementary curriculum, and there isn't a subject taught in the higher curriculum, there isn't a natural science that is taught in the high school or in the colleges and universities that cannot be made to contribute to an understanding of the fact that man depends on other men for the foundation of intellectual life. I am so enthusiastic about making all of the subjects part of the social instruction in the schools that I would make the whole curriculum a curriculum of social instruction, a curriculum that would open up to young people the inheritances of the past and make them aware of their dependence upon their forebears and upon other nations for the instruments of intellectual life they employ.

When you become exact and definite and have the material that you can count, that you can lay down as a perfectly definite beginning of all your thinking, then you have a science. You have that attitude toward life which will make it possible for you to determine, with precision and accuracy, what you are going to do when you take the next step and the next in trying to make all the people intelligent about their social relations and about the implications of school work, not only within its own operations but for those contacts which the young people are to find in later life.

I would be discouraged if I did not believe there are some splendid examples of the sort that will show you what I am trying to talk about. I am going to venture, if I may, to do a little advertising. Purdue University produced a little pamphlet sometime ago; I don't know whether you have all seen it or not. It is the story of wheat; it is a little thing, can be read by a child. It can be read through at a short sitting. It is full of information that shows how civilization has depended upon that particular food-stuff. There is another set of pamphlets being published by one of the agencies that has concerned itself with modern life; it is the American Educational Press of Columbus, Ohio. It has published a series of booklets under the title, "Unit Study Booklets; Modern Problems Series." These booklets treat of such current topics as the depression and economic planning. They are little pamphlets that can be read at least by a high school student and ought to be read by teachers so they will have an understanding of the way in which the school fits into modern life.

The American Council on Education has published six little brochures, one on the alphabet, one on the number system, one on weights and measures, one on the calendar, one on time telling, and one on the way in which customs pass into laws, as shown by the development of traffic regulations.

These can be read by pupils. You can put them into the class in arithmetic. You can put them into the class in history. You can put them into the class in English. You can lay them on the table and have them read in the leisure time of the pupils.

We must socialize the whole curriculum. I have come to that conclusion not by some vague thinking about the present emergency, but I say again if you study carefully and definitely the results of your school work, if you measure the points at which children are uninformed, and you can measure it with perfect definiteness to show that they are deficient in their knowl-

edge of social concepts, if you make an examination of the curriculum by the devices that have been perfected since the beginning of this century, have been refined since 1915, and are the established methods by which education shall make progress—I say if you will do that, you will put some more social material into the curriculum of the common school.

GENERAL SESSION, THURSDAY MORNING, MARCH 2

Educational Frontiers Beyond the Common Schools

EDUCATIONAL FRONTIERS IN THE SECONDARY AREA

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Frontiers have been the wealth, the opportunity, and the luring hope of America. While the conservative and the fearful hugged the contented fire-side and worshipped the ancient Lares and Penates in static safety, pioneers pushed out into the unexplored wilds—across the Appalachians, over the prairies, scaled the Rocky Mountains, and finally were stopped by the immensity of the Pacific ocean.

Not for delectations sweet,
Not the cushion and the slipper, not the peaceful and the studious,
Not the riches safe and palling, not for them the tame enjoyment,
Pioneers, O Pioneers!

Was it seeking or escape that drove these early pioneers away from comforts, friends, and established conventions out into the unknown? What were they seeking? What were they escaping? It pleases us to stress the impelling ideals for religious, political, or social freedom; but it is likely that failure, unhappiness, and restlessness were quite as much a cause of their pushing out from settled conditions. Many of the pioneers doubtless moved from the Atlantic seaboard for escape rather than for opportunity; but those who are most significant for us must have had a vision of the great dream, must have felt in their veins the tingling blood of democracy, must have chanted in their hearts: "We the youthful sinewy races, all the rest on us depend." They wanted to be free, to discover new opportunities to make a new world—even for those who stayed behind.

Whatever the motive that sent him forth, however difficult the plunge into unexplored wilderness, however exhilarating the discovery of new frontiers, what the pioneer did when he got there is a pathetic and tragic illustration of the inadequacy of man unprepared for new conditions to utilize them for the realization of his dream. Without perceiving that a new world demands new conventions, the pioneer as a rule endeavored to make the frontier as nearly like the community that he had left as possible.

Changes in the physical were easy to perceive in comparison with those in the intellectual or spiritual world. The coonskin cap replaced the silk hat long

before the pioneer had any suspicion that the old forms of education were equally useless for the needs of his children. The Latin grammar school was desired and imitated even tho conditions in England had already made it an anachronism. The pioneer may have had his ideal, but usually he was inadequate to provide the machinery to achieve it. He said that he would set up schools to train religious and political leaders, but he imitated the institutions that could produce only theologians and grammarians. The form never insures the spirit.

Then came another tragedy. When the traditional form failed to achieve the ideal, faith in both the form and the ideal tended to weaken. There was an indiscriminating abandoning of both, with a resulting handicap to the progress of the new civilization that had been the goal of all the danger and labor and privation and sacrifice. The ideals were distinctly higher than those they had replaced. There was good in some of the old machinery if the pioneer had only been discriminating enough to see it and strong enough to adapt and preserve it. Discrediting and largely abandoning the old machinery, the pioneer set himself to "slog" ahead at making a physical living, as if the new civilization had no demands of its own and as if the old would never catch up. It never did—entirely; but parts of it he retained and other parts were brought by the recurrent waves of less hardy followers. The children were found skeptical that any of the old was worth possessing or worth seeking and lacking in a vision of the new. Would there had been far-sighted and persevering leaders in those days!

The result of all this was that the unique advantages of the frontier so far as they pertained to a civilization adapted to new conditions were largely lost. When new conditions are met all men by training, by habituation to old conditions, are, more or less, equal. They become unequal; and some gain a great advantage by recognizing that the situation is different, by analyzing it to find the new opportunities and the challenge, by fertility in inventing new ways of using the former to meet the latter, by quickly and certainly testing them and selecting those that give the greater satisfactions, and by open-minded readiness to adopt for use the best program of action. But all this assumes one essential, a comprehensive set of ideals, a vision of the world that is desired to be.

It is always a tragedy that the pioneer finds it so difficult to recognize and to analyze the wholeness of a new situation. He is too close to it, too involved in it, too busy with routine and detailed things, too obsessed by the idea that he must identify fragments of the new with the wholeness of the old, too eager to use the worn keys on the ring that he has carefully preserved. He seldom even perceives the necessity of understanding the new complex. Instead, he seeks or demands or vaguely hopes for some specific that is immediate and final, as if that could ever exist. He will grasp for any definite device, however minor it may be, that promises to "work" for the instant need; but he is slow to be concerned with a program that is suitable for the whole complicated need, especially a program that involves the remote and the dimly perceived. No one more than the pioneer needs leadership. "Nothing ever

happened in the world as prophets and leaders wished it to do," sagely remarked George Simmel, "but without prophets and leaders it would not have happened at all." Never more than now has the pioneer needed leadership that is far-sighted, that, envisaging the whole, goes to the bottom of things to build a solid foundation for a brave new structure to house the new world of a new civilization.

Oh, how I wish that some cold wise man
Would dig beneath the surface which is scraped,
Deal with the depths.

A difficulty in our confusion is to know who the true leaders are. On every hand we hear proposed foolish specifics, ranging from defunct old fashions to ephemeral invention. We need to listen with patience and to consider sympathetically, as well as critically, the proposals of anyone who thinks himself a seer and a leader. Anyone may have seized upon and understood a part of the complex that we have ignored as insignificant. Each one has certainly seen a part, if not the whole, from a different point of view that may have revealed values hidden from others. He may have blundered, in that inexplicable way that human beings have the habit of doing, upon the beginnings of the very plan that wise men have fumbled for and failed to find. He may be able to give a clue, the mere suggestive end of a string that will lead others on more rationally to a comprehending plan.

After all suggestions are sympathetically and critically considered, after all clues are followed by intelligent, imaginative, and constructive reflection, there must come a synthesis based on broad and deep understanding of the phenomena of the new and still changing intellectual frontier. Such a synthesis can be made only by our best minds, chosen for competence and devoted to the all important task. Their work must be inspired by the constant ideals of our nation, ideals purified from the contaminations of selfishness and illuminated again for the devoted acceptance of all the people. After the program that education is to follow for achieving these ideals is formulated, it will be tried in the crucible of public opinion, which, though uncertain and variable, is an essential of democracy. Unless the people are informed and approve, no program can have stability or promise of permanent success.

The nature and extent of the social, political, and economic changes that have brought a new frontier can only be suggested here. They are too important and too numerous to be discussed or even to be listed in their entirety. We do not know them in their entirety; we do not fully understand those that we perceive. We have a world vastly extended by the inventions of communication and of transportation; we have a marvelous decrease of physical isolation as cities have grown and as good roads facilitate travel; we have a paradoxical weakening of social ties as men live closer together but with less sympathy and sense of responsibility for each other; we have a weakening of home influences as divorce increases, as both parents are in-

creasingly away on business or pleasure, and as other agencies have with less success taken over responsibilities for the children; we have the tragic breakdown of the urban Protestant and Jewish churches; we have changed and changing mores that approve what was formerly condemned and that scorn what was once sacred; we have a new standard for ethical character, vague perhaps but assuredly different; we have politics that wander selfishly and ineffectively for the public good in the new clearings of the wilderness; we have specialization in industry that demands a revolution in training; we have potency of production by machinery that insures, not only plenty for all wants, but leisure that needs direction; we have a host of means of occupying leisure time with a demand for minimum activity and with a paucity of beneficent results; and we have the vast organization of an unparalleled school system negligibly concerned with any of these important phenomena. These are but illustrations of the conditions which confront us on the new frontier, conditions that we can by no means escape. We must understand them individually and as parts of the hierarchy of modern civilization, understand them and adapt our education to make the best possible out of them.

We have been critical of the pioneer on the geographic frontiers of our country. However, unless we learn from his neglect of opportunity how wisely to act on the new frontier of ideas, we shall be even more severely criticized by generations to come. We need first of all to understand the changes that have come, some of them gradually, a few with appalling suddenness, in this maelstrom of life in which we find ourselves. We need to understand far more than the cold figures of machine production or even the accumulated data of the sociologists. Their significance, their threat, and their promise challenge our intelligence. We must understand their significance and plan to change the frontier or to adapt our lives to them so that more happiness will come to all our people. It is easy to smile at the early pioneer who stodgily and stubbornly hoped to reproduce the past; it is difficult but imperative that we abandon his vain hope of restoring "the good old days" and set ourselves to finding what we can make of the good new days. They are all that we shall have.

It should be obvious to the most casual and superficial thinker, however, that understanding of the social mutations will not be sufficient. No one can plan wisely unless he has a goal that he wishes to reach. "The American dream" has, unfortunately and tragically, become vague; and to many of those who boast of citizenship it has never become a permanent and moving vision of the goal toward the achievement of which all effort, all sacrifice must be directed. The dream of a people made free by opportunity for every one to achieve the best that is possible in him, but then to insure that same differentiated opportunity, whatever it may be, to all others, and cooperatively to live in harmony and mutual respect with varied developments still going on—this is the dream that we preserve from the past and that still inspires passionate devotion in those who have never taken their eyes from the pillar of cloud by day and the pillar of fire by night. Unless all of our people accept

and devotedly seek this ideal on the new frontier, we shall more and more bend the knee to Baal and wander from democracy.

Understanding of the complex new phenomena, then, important and difficult as it is, will be significant only if it furnishes the materials out of which we may build toward the ideal. That building can be done chiefly, I almost go so far as to say only, by the public schools. However much they have failed of ideal accomplishment in the past, they remain our only means of salvation for the future. Their failure, to which may be attributed most of the woes that now harass us, should be blamed mostly on a public that got what they demanded while eagerly and, in a large sense, blindly seeking to reproduce the details of an outmoded civilization on a new frontier. Education, even at its worst, has more than the public kept the vision of democracy. But when it attempted seriously to achieve it, teachers ran into somebody's blockhouse of social traditions, somebody's industrial stockade, or somebody's political barbwire. Driven back by guns from the defenses of selfishness, the schools have been less and less able to inspire the younger generations with the vision of what might be, the vision of what must be for a successful democracy.

And yet education is being blamed. Both attempting and accomplishing more than the general public has seriously wanted, the schools are now the target for criticism as unfair as it is virulent. The rich who would lighten their burden of taxation employ or encourage popular writers to emphasize every dereliction of duty, every defect of program, and every apparent extravagance. Education has no apology for towers, marble corridors, swimming pools, and stadiums, however much it would like to have now for more important things the money that they cost. They were what the people wanted. They came along with gold domes on court houses, limousines for sheriffs, monster "memorial" auditoriums, and luxury in every home. I suspect that they still have a reasonable defense. But they are not the weakest joint in our armor. Neither is that rare teacher who complained that she couldn't go to Bermuda because her salary was cut, nor that high school with too many janitors, nor that superintendent who was convicted of crime—all being falsely indicated as "typical." The point of vulnerability is that education has not seriously and consistently and courageously and persistently sought to convince the public that the schools alone can keep the eyes of each oncoming generation firmly fixed on the one great goal of democracy.

It is human nature to seek something to blame. It is the nature of little and of selfish men to make petty and physical changes without seeking and planning to eradicate the real causes of trouble and without preparing a constructive program that will lead to great accomplishment in the future. History tells instance after instance of our pioneer forefathers, resentful of conditions that had developed because of their short-sighted selfishness, even at those that had to be used for remedying their woes. Have we learned nothing from history? If the schools have not been wiser than the public, if anticipating needs they have not gone beyond popular approval and pre-

vented social, economic, and political ills, shall the public now destroy or weaken the only instrument it has for bringing about what it wants? Blame we are sure to have, mounting and unfair criticism we assuredly must be prepared to meet. It is only reasonable to expect all school men and women to cooperate in all necessary economy and in remedying conditions that for any reason are bad. We shall not manifest professional competence unless at the same time we keep before the public mind the essential fact that education is the one and only means for training the younger generations to accept and effectively to live by the program that this generation must prepare.

We must forward the planning of such a program, both as educational leaders and as citizens. I am not so foolish as to think that any and every individual schoolmaster should forthwith set out in his classroom to reform society. Nor am I so foolish as to imagine that a society without a plan can permanently succeed, to say nothing of progressing. Altho the public has basked in that illusion, it has been battered by the events of the past few years into a readiness to accept leadership toward anything that promises amelioration. The individual schoolmaster can do something to induce an acceptance of a program of planning for achieving the dream of democracy on the new frontier, but he needs direction and support. Both can be given by our great educational organizations. If the National Education Association, with its numerous and potent departments, and the state associations will concentrate their strength on this necessity of planning a program, which education must be used to make effective, it already has an enlisted army of the superior minds of the nation to popularize and to promote an appreciation of the need in every community of our country. Before education can be made effective the people, or at least their leaders, must agree on what they want and thus be prepared to support the work of the schools on the new frontier.

The elementary schools are already so organized that the introduction of a cooperating plan will be relatively easy. The problem and the greater opportunity will lie in the secondary schools, which are conceived as embracing both the junior high school and the junior college. It is in this period that the intellect has developed so that more than average understanding is possible, and it is in this period that the necessary emotional approval and stimulus to devoted action can be developed. Elementary education can lay the foundation and furnish the simpler tools, but it is secondary education that must be used to make effective the great program or any major part of it for achieving the ideals adopted for national prosperity and happiness.

The achievements of our secondary schools are great and not to be deprecated. Their possibilities are far greater and must be seriously and strenuously sought. We in the United States have accepted the ideal, unique in the whole world, of providing a secondary education appropriate to the needs of every youth. This ideal is not likely to be abandoned, primarily because it is intertwined with the roots of democracy; but also because, as I have elsewhere pointed out, there is nothing else that society can do with youth but educate them. Already we have about half our youth in secondary schools,

and the fraction must inevitably increase. The appropriate education, varying far beyond the accustomed limits, we have yet to provide for the great number who have neither the competence nor the need for traditional courses. The effort to force them upon all youth results in waste, not only of time and money, but of the far more important opportunity to make the secondary schools contribute largely and vitally to the welfare of the nation and the happiness of its people. The new education must begin with, and consistently continue to seek the good of the supporting society.

Altho criticism and restricted budgets are uncomfortable, I am inclined to think that they are by no means wholly bad for secondary education at the present time. If we are competent professionally, they will compel a franker appraisal of our own work than we are accustomed to give, a seeking to understand the new frontier on which we are living, the construction of a program that will prepare every youth according to his aptitudes and capacities for its needs, and then a bold and continuous campaign to interpret this program to the people. Every individual school man and woman should accept this professional challenge and devote such intellectual powers as he has to understanding and to invention. Then in professional organizations they will find the place to evaluate contributed ideas and the strength to put an adopted program convincingly before the people.

We are indeed on a new frontier. As the old has moved back, many of its needs have gone. As the new has moved up, many new needs have come. Have we the vision to see conditions as they are, the wisdom to interpret them for their true significances, the high dream to indicate the goal toward which they should move, the ability to plan for an educational program that will utilize the facts to achieve the dream, and the strength not only to endure criticism and privations but also to carry on, always on, until we have made the public see and accept the cooperative responsibility? This is the challenge that we have on the new frontier. It involves more than pedagogical improvements of traditional classics. It means creating a new civilization suited to the new frontier and intelligently using the schools as the most potent means of progress. It means that the schoolmaster will no longer be the petty tyrant of the ferule or the sympathetic guide thru the mazes of inherited tradition. Instead, with eyes fixed on the high goal, with mind comprehending and approving the comprehensive program for progress, he will apply his strength to the making of a brave new world good for all who live in it.

Not for delectations sweet,
Not the cushion and the slipper, not the peaceful and the studious,
Not the riches safe and palling, not for you the tame enjoyment.
Pioneers, O Pioneers!

EDUCATION IN THE POST-SECONDARY AREA

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Superintendents replying to an inquiry recently made by the United States Commissioner of Education, reported three or four times as many postgraduates in high schools as were enrolled a few years ago. Minneapolis reported 505 graduate students. In the last ten years postgraduate registration increased 800 percent thruout the United States, according to a statement in *School and Society* for November 19, 1932. Principals of North Central Association high schools in Michigan reported in October, 1931, a total of 1610 postgraduates. In October, 1932, this same group of principals reported 5152. If all schools having former graduates enrolled reported these separately each year, this is an increase of 320 percent in one year.

Inquiries addressed to a number of superintendents and principals at the beginning of the present semester, February, 1933, brought definite information that even larger numbers of postgraduates have enrolled for the second semester than for the first. One city school system in Michigan with a large enrolment of postgraduates for the first semester reported a 46 percent increase over that number for the second semester. Detroit reported 1000 postgraduate enrolments for the first semester and 1300 for the second. There is a much larger enrolment of postgraduates in all of America's secondary schools this year than at any other time in the history of secondary education. This situation presents a challenge to superintendents and boards of education that is not easily met in a satisfactory manner.

The most serious educational problem confronting the American people today is that of devising ways and means for the proper education, adjustment and assimilation of the millions of young people of the post-secondary area. Upon this group, educated at public expense beyond the average for so large a group in any country at any time in the world's history, must rest much of the work of the government, business, welfare agencies, the professions and the homes of the coming generation. If suitable provisions can be made for the continued education of these young people and if satisfactory employment can be provided for them, they will become efficient, law-abiding citizens and happy homemakers, and a satisfying, progressive civilization will develop. If they are to be denied further educational opportunities, or if they are to be supplanted in government and other positions by those of low intelligence and little education, resentments will develop, crime will increase and life will be much less worth living. For the sake of these high-school graduates, and for the preservation of a wholesome society it is the inescapable duty of the leaders of this day to give special attention to this group.

Child labor and compulsory education laws, the greatly improved economic status of the average family, and the widespread belief in the social and economic value of a high-school education which was accentuated

greatly by the experience of army training camps during and after the war operated jointly to send the high-school enrolment of 2,500,000 in 1920 up to 4,800,000 by 1930.

Increased numbers of high-school graduates, lack of opportunities for post-secondary education in the immediate neighborhood, unemployment, decrease in family incomes, and the like, converging at one time on the situation have caused unprecedented numbers of postgraduates to demand *special* provisions for their needs or permission for reentrance into already over-crowded local high schools. Problems never before encountered have arisen, some of which need special consideration immediately.

Curriculum Problems—About one-third of the high schools of this country are so small that it is impossible to offer more than one curriculum.¹ By the time a pupil has reached graduation he has taken every course the local high school offers. Postgraduates returning to these schools, therefore, reenter courses which they have already had. Many of these students do not object to this repetition. They wish to be better prepared when the time comes for them to enter college, while others desire opportunities to read and acquaint themselves with some of the additional materials which they had to omit while taking regular high-school work. Still others reenrol in order to have a good time as postgraduates and to escape certain duties at home or on the farm. But for whatever reason they return, a serious situation is usually created when postgraduates must be placed in regular classes with pupils still working toward graduation.

In large high schools the problem is frequently not quite so serious. These schools have more than one curriculum, usually including large numbers of courses which the graduates have not taken. If the class sections are not already too large it is relatively easy to distribute the postgraduates to new teachers and new work. In his last four years of high school the pupil usually takes 16 units of work. Some high schools offer as many as 100 to 150 units or courses. In these schools a pupil might remain a decade or more and still have new work, new teachers and new courses to challenge him.

Because of decreased school finances, however, even large high schools are finding it difficult to care for these postgraduates. During the past three years it has become necessary for secondary schools to drop a considerable number of courses, to consolidate sections, to increase the size of classes, and to increase the teacher load in order to meet the needs of their regular student body.

Standards of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools permit the principal, vice-principals, study-hall teachers, vocational advisers, librarians, other supervisory officers, and clerks to be counted as teachers when the pupil-teacher ratio is being computed. Under this liberal interpretation reports for Michigan show that until 1930-31 there were no schools with a pupil-

¹ Gaumnitz, Walter H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930.

teacher ratio in excess of 30. Pupil-teacher ratios above 30 were reported by one school in the fall of 1930, by 14 schools in the fall of 1931, and by 29 schools in the fall of 1932.

Only a short time ago an academic class of 40 pupils was considered too large. Now there are class sections in some schools where 40 is considered the minimum. No class enrolment is below that number if it can be avoided. Sections have been increased in some schools until individual teachers are handling 60 to 80 pupils in English, mathematics, or the languages, and are teaching 250 to 300 pupils each school day. In one private secondary school visited by the writer there were classes and enrolments as follows: three public-speaking classes with 68, 76, and 78 pupils; two algebra classes with 76 and 82 pupils; and an English class and a Latin class each with 68. Such crowded conditions practically prohibit the caring for any postgraduates.

Formerly it was thought that enrolments in non-academic sections should be held down to approximately half the number taught in academic sections. Even under the present serious conditions non-academic classes do not average more than 20 to 25 pupils to the section. The "Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education" held in Washington in January, 1933, adopted unanimously a report brought in by one of the subcommittees, of which Superintendent Frank Cody was chairman. One section of this report stated: "The size of classes in art, music, shop work, home economics, and other special subjects should be made as large as that of the average academic class." Putting this suggestion into practise will enable schools to take care of some of the postgraduates.

The fact that postgraduates in high school usually seek college credit for additional courses taken, often creates a serious problem for principals and teachers. These postgraduates (college freshmen) in high school make a demand on the time and thought of teachers entirely out of proportion to their numbers. Postgraduates are older and more mature, and they have had the senior year of special privilege during which time they enjoyed a certain companionship with the teachers denied to other pupils. On re-enrolling they assert themselves in an attempt to get enough teaching to satisfy college requirements and thus rob the regular pupils of what is rightfully theirs. The attempt to secure college credit for work done by postgraduates in high school stirs up many problems for teachers and pupils alike.

Control of Students—The control of postgraduates in high school presents many and varied problems. Formerly only those were returning who had been good students and who were genuinely interested in getting further education. Usually they were from families not in a position to provide them with a college education. These graduates made intelligent use of the library, the laboratories, and other facilities and they usually learned a great deal with a minimum demand on teachers. Outlines of advanced courses were furnished them, college books were loaned by teachers, and a super-

visory guidance was supplied by the teacher who could be of most help. Often these postgraduates were designated assistant teachers or laboratory assistants. High-school pupils had respect for their scholarship and studious habits, and were willing to accept them in their new role. They were usually few in number.

The situation today is entirely different. Postgraduates are returning to high schools in great numbers. When 150 to 200 former graduates return for additional courses or for escape from home duties and other manual work, the principal and superintendent are confronted with perplexing problems. The postgraduate attitude and the usurpation of teacher time and school activities are frequently resented. Clashes arise and the unity of the school is interrupted. Many postgraduates are quietly and unassumingly accepting the further advantages offered by local high schools, yet many others are creating very serious problems for school administrators and teachers. As a measure of protection some principals are asking postgraduates on reenrolment to sign agreements to discontinue school on the first appearance of a difficulty in which they are involved.

A considerable number of colleges and universities are making definite plans to give examinations on work taken by postgraduates in high schools for the satisfying of certain freshmen course requirements. Several definite statements of this policy have come to the writer's attention. The one from the University of Illinois, quoted in *School and Society* for December 17, 1932, is in part as follows: "Proficiency examinations for advanced standing are offered in all elementary courses (normally courses open to freshmen) in English (rhetoric), foreign languages (ancient and modern), hygiene, mathematics, the natural sciences and the social sciences.

"Any student who passes a proficiency examination in a university course is given credit towards graduation for the amount regularly allowed in the course, provided credit in such course does not duplicate credit counted for admission to the University. The grade in proficiency examinations shall be "pass" or "not pass." No applicant is given a grade of "pass" unless he has received a grade of at least "C" in the examination.

"Proficiency examinations are provided without fee."

The University of Michigan states that "Advanced credit is granted only for studies equivalent to courses offered in the University, and in accordance with the following conditions: Either the applicant must, during the first year of residence in the University, creditably complete, in the department concerned, a course presupposing a satisfactory knowledge of the work for which credit is asked, or he must pass a satisfactory examination in the work presented."

Junior colleges already organized have attempted to help meet the situation by broadening their curriculum offerings. In some instances tuition fees have been reduced or aid has been sought from public and private sources. Junior college enrolments have increased somewhat, but as yet only a small fraction of the high-school graduates interested in further education have found accommodation in junior colleges. President Zook in the February

issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association* reports that ". . . in every state save California, there are many more students enrolled in the freshman and sophomore years of the state institutions than there are in local public junior colleges." As yet junior colleges have been unable to touch more than the fringe of the problem of the post-secondary area. And it may be that it would be expecting too much to ask traditionally-minded junior colleges, organized and administered as they are with one eye on the city budget and the other on keeping the way open for their graduates to have a smooth entrance into institutions of higher education, to sense the needs and try to meet the demands of such a horde of high-school graduates.

To help meet this situation private organizations in many communities have attempted to organize and operate colleges in high-school buildings after school hours. On the whole this is not a good plan. If such college or junior-college courses must be offered, it would be better if the superintendent of schools and the principal of the high school were in direct charge. Many of these hurriedly organized schemes or emergency colleges are using as teachers, college graduates found in the community. Some of the "professors" are unemployed teachers and superintendents, ex-engineers, unassigned preachers, local doctors, "realtors," and others who have more time than money, and who are anxious to exchange a considerable amount of the former for a reasonable amount of the latter. Some are willing to teach for the love of the work and for the practise they may obtain.

Just as the high school has for many years been thought of as the people's college, the time has now arrived for the reorganized junior college to take this place. The junior college even when reorganized should continue to offer the first two years of regular four-year college work when a sufficient number of interested students ask for that sort of work. This, however, should not be the major object of the public junior college. Many terminal courses should be organized for those who are interested in learning how to do better and with greater satisfaction the things they will have to do anyway. Provision ought to be made for courses in child care, homemaking, health, cooking, sewing, art, music, simple accounting, industrial arts of all sorts, agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, typewriting, literature for enjoyment rather than analysis, radio, bird study, science groups of many kinds, dramatics, play production, news reporting, and other fields just as far as community needs are in evidence. Someone will say, "and insofar as money is available," but I do not believe this needs to be such a limiting factor as it is often considered. Jesse H. Newlon, in the January number of *School Executives Magazine* in discussing "The 1933 Challenge to Education," says, "The acute problem of the moment is the financial problem." I doubt this. According to official information sent to *School and Society* for January 28, 1933, the first outstanding finding of the National Survey of School Finance shows "that in a large majority of states there existed, even at the peak of prosperity, areas in which educational opportunities were of the most meager type." At the peak of pros-

perity money was available in these states for everything else. Why not for education? The acute problem is to get leaders to take a personal interest in their fellow men. Sufficient money will be forthcoming when the leaders show a genuine interest in providing educational opportunities for *all* children equivalent to those desired for their own children. When such interest is finally developed every community will have at its educational center a people's school or college of the wider or reorganized type with many courses of study, definitely terminal and not preparatory in character.

At least one high school, that of Benton Harbor, Michigan, under S. C. Mitchell's superintendency, has made considerable use of correspondence courses to supplement and enrich the high-school curriculum. The University of Nebraska Bulletin 84, June 1931, says: "Benton Harbor High School today probably carries on a more extended program of correspondence work than any other resident high school in the United States. The plan used in that school has been the basis for similar plans adopted in many other high schools."

The Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education reports that the University of Nebraska is trying the experiment of supplying from the State University Extension Department correspondence courses in whatever subjects any student in a small high school may desire to study. The written lessons are sent to the University for correction. It is my belief that this method of procedure, developed for the enrichment of limited high-school curriculums, has far-reaching possibilities for use in the post-secondary area of education. Some of the limitations and difficulties met with when postgraduates reenter small high schools such as (1) lack of carefully organized advanced courses, (2) the mingling of mature with immature students, (3) lack of requirement of self-help on part of students, (4) teaching and examining members of staff one and the same, as is now found in all high schools, (5) inadequate library facilities, and many others might be greatly minimized by organizing correspondence extension centers. Correspondence schools and extension divisions of universities could supply outlines of courses carefully worked out; students of about the same maturity in rather large numbers might be gathered together in libraries or in study halls after school, or even during the day for the preparation of their specific lessons. A competent, widely experienced teacher, or supervisor of learning might be secured as an adviser or helper for the students in looking up references and securing pertinent material for the solving of their problems. The helping teacher need not know the subjects in detail. Study of the lesson and preparation of reports should be entirely the responsibility of the students. The giving of final examinations and marks should be the responsibility of state universities and other colleges doing correspondence work.

Such a program if carefully developed and honestly administered (1) ought to furnish a rather wide variety of choice of subjects, (2) should place more individual responsibility on postgraduate students than is ordinarily expected of high-school pupils, (3) ought to make possible the handling of

larger numbers of students by one teacher, (4) should reduce the per pupil cost of education, (5) should furnish an enriched curriculum near at home for smaller communities, and (6) should provide for quick curriculum changes to meet local needs.

Courses offered to those of the post-secondary area need not be labeled as being of the junior-college or college level or of any other level except that of the need of the people who are concerned. These opportunities need not be planned for any definite period of time. Every effort should be made to get away from the stated time idea. Too large a percentage of high school and college education is rendered ineffective by the desire to get thru, grasp the coveted diploma, have it over with and go out into the world an educated person. Genuine educational development does not come all at once, nor does it remain without receiving constant attention. A statement of proficiency in accomplishment in the different courses or activities should be given from time to time to the students enrolled in the wider type of reorganized college courses. Grades, promotion marks, and diplomas should be discarded in the post-secondary area of education. In this area the prevailing idea must be that of obtaining something which will contribute continuously to one's usefulness and enjoyment.

Self-education versus courses—Altogether too widespread is the notion that a person must take a course in a subject if he is to know anything about it. High-school graduates lament for years the fact that they have not had courses in Shakespeare, French, chemistry, industrial arts, typewriting, home economics and the like. Yet it does not seem to occur to them that a small fraction of the time they may be giving to bridge, to some other diversion, or merely to whiling away the time until the depression is over, if spent in study would bring them in a few months a genuine acquaintance with the desired subject, equal often to that obtained by the average college graduate. I know personally a man who decided that he wanted to know something about Shakespeare. In just a few years as a part of his recreation, or play as he calls it, he became almost an authority on one phase of Shakespeare's writings.

Self-education is the only worthwhile education. If high schools could only realize this fundamental principle a little more clearly and could put it into more general practise with pupils, educational programs for the post-secondary area would be much less difficult. Teachers in high schools are so conscientious in their work and so anxious to do all possible for every pupil that they do too much for many of them. We have been obsessed with the notion that we must *teach*. Those who would be of most use to mature young people ought to think of themselves as directors of learning. Too much teaching tends to make pupils helpless. Directors of learning who understand the implications of the law of self-activity assist but do not handicap learners. The best teaching, or rather the best learning, takes place when the teacher becomes an intelligent, helpful stage-setter. Teachers *make* pupils learn their lessons; a competent stage-setter arranges the setting so that pupils are stimulated to do their own work. Gradually they begin

to think of the teacher as their friend and fellow learner. Interest develops, pupils discover that they can learn things for themselves, and work continues when the teacher is out of sight or even when the pupil is out of school. This is the ideal toward which high schools should strive, and it is the *only* goal worthy of any consideration by those who are attempting to provide education beyond the high-school area.

New frontiers of the post-secondary area will be occupied and cultivated more quickly and more successfully if we can first conceive of education in a broader way than merely in terms of 16 units of high-school credit, or 120 semester hours of college work. The quality and quantity of a person's education need not necessarily bear a direct relationship to the number of degrees held. Too long we have considered as educated only those persons holding degrees from colleges or universities even tho correctly speaking some of these may be among the most ignorant, inflexible, and prejudiced of the whole community. Education is a continuous process and *that person is best educated who knows how to participate most actively and efficiently in life's affairs as a producer and who knows best how to live happily and harmoniously with himself, his family, and his neighbors.* Such an education comes as one lives. "Education is life."

NEW FRONTIERS IN THE UNIVERSITY AREA

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I have been asked to speak on New Frontiers in the University Area. I should be glad to do so if I could. Unfortunately, however, my associations are limited. I can talk about Chicago and nothing else. Perhaps you will feel that the reputation of that city will entitle it, even in this generation, to be called a frontier, and perhaps you may forgive me, too, if I confine my remarks to a subject with which I have some slight acquaintance.

Before reviewing the recent developments at the University of Chicago, there are a few general statements that I should like to make about them. In the first place, they have none of them been revolutionary or even highly original. They are almost all of them matters upon which educators at the University of Chicago and elsewhere have agreed for years. If there is anything startling about them it is in the fact that all of them have not been tried before. And so the word experimental can be applied to them only in a restricted sense. The attitude of the university is experimental, because it is willing to try some things when success is not guaranteed. It is willing to change if change seems on reflection to be desirable. But it is not striking out blindly in the effort to do something new merely because it is new. I may say in passing that almost everything in education is experimental, for we can seldom prove that anything we do is conclusively better than something else we might do or indeed than nothing at all.

I wish to indicate at the outset also that the measures lately taken at Chicago have been taken on the recommendation of the university senate, which

consists of all professors of full rank, and have been approved by the board of trustees. In the whole program, which has been presented step by step to the senate and the board, we have almost never had a close vote. The plans have represented the judgment of the overwhelming majority of the faculty and the board. It is further important to notice that these plans have not been confined to any one school or to any single aspect of the university's life. They have affected the whole institution, its administration, its methods, its curriculum, and its organization. Altho the process is still far from complete, we can give the main outlines of the program as it seems likely to proceed during the next few years.

Before 1930 the organization of the University of Chicago did not differ materially from the customary scheme except that the institution was perhaps more highly departmentalized than most. During the first seventeen years of its history, heads of departments held office for life. Under this system departmental autonomy flourished. Heads of departments dealt chiefly with the president, and very little with the deans. The deans advised students, awarded fellowships, and looked after other inter-departmental affairs. But budgets and appointments were departmental matters, on which the deans advised, but which they did not control. The result was that in 1929 the president had the task of coordinating seventy-two independent budgets.

It was clear also that each departmental budget represented at least two different interests—the interests of general education and of advanced study and research. These differences were not reflected in the organization of the university. The university consisted of the professional schools and the graduate schools and colleges of arts, literature, and science. It was becoming increasingly apparent that the junior colleges were concerned with a different problem from the senior colleges, and that the problem of the senior colleges was similar to that of the graduate schools. The graduate schools, however, had differences among themselves. There were strong groups in the humanities and the social sciences nominally united in the Graduate School of Arts and Literature. There were strong groups in the biological and physical sciences nominally united in the Graduate School of Science.

To accomplish at one stroke an administrative simplification and an organization that reflected the real activities of the university, the senate recommended in the fall of 1930 that the graduate schools, the senior colleges and the junior colleges be abolished and that in their places there be established five divisions: the biological sciences, the physical sciences, the social sciences, the humanities, and the college. The college was to do the work of the university in general education; the divisions were to be devoted to advanced study and research and were to award all degrees. The deans of the divisions were to be vicepresidents in charge of their organizations, reviewing the departmental budgets, and coordinating them into divisional budgets before sending them to the president. This also empowered them to recommend appointments, promotions and increases in salary. In this way the number

of independent budgets handled by the president was reduced from seventy-two to twenty-four, and the organization of the university was related more nearly to its educational activities.

It was soon observed that the new responsibilities thrown on the deans would make it difficult for them to perform many of the tasks that they had carried hitherto. It was noticed also that the problem of educational and vocational guidance was one that we were treating in a very cavalier fashion. Some twelve separate units were concerned with student problems. In view of the methods of measurement that we proposed, adequate attention to guidance was more necessary than ever before. The senate therefore recommended that a dean of students should be appointed who should have charge of the twelve organizations concerned with student affairs and who should relieve the deans of the burden of dealing with student problems. By this arrangement the number of independent budgets handled by the president was reduced from twenty-four to twelve.

Since we were in the business of reorganizing it was considered a propitious time to put into effect the results of deliberations that had been going on since 1927 affecting the methods of measuring the progress of students. We decided to get rid of credits and course examinations for them, to abolish compulsory class attendance, and to reduce arbitrary residence requirements. In place of these various methods of detecting a student's intellectual development, we provided for general examinations as the sole criterion of progress from one unit to another, except for those degrees where a dissertation has always been demanded. These examinations the student may take when in his opinion he is ready to do so. The object of this arrangement is not to speed up the educational process, but to permit the student to keep constantly in contact with material that is stimulating and challenging to him.

A system of general examinations had to be administered. The senate therefore recommended the appointment of a university examiner who should be chairman of a board of examinations composed of nine members representing the various faculties. All examinations which were to count for anything were to be given by the board which is not composed of members of the teaching staff. The board's technical staff prepares the examinations on the basis of material supplied by the teaching staff. The board then administers and tests the examinations.

These actions of the senate and the board complete what may be called the first phase of the university's reorganization. They were taken in the fall of 1930. Each faculty at once attacked the problem of its curriculum. The college faculty offered in the fall of 1931 an entirely new course of study centering around four large lecture courses in the physical, social, and biological sciences, and the humanities. Many departmental courses for freshmen and sophomores disappeared entirely. The object was to give a general education and to eliminate, wherever possible, courses with a professional aim. In the general courses the student attends lectures, if he wishes, three times a week, and a discussion group once a week. Ordinarily

he attends two of the general courses in his freshman year and two in his sophomore year. Thus he has time left to attend courses that will give him those tools that he will need if he is going on into the upper divisions.

The other divisions and the professional schools are most of them still at work on their courses of study. In general, the bachelor's degree will be conferred on the basis of general examinations given on the theory that the student will spend one-third of his time in a department, one-third in a division, and have one-third of it free. The courses leading to the higher degrees will be still more specialized. The tendency in the divisions is essentially that manifested in the college—to drop as many departmental courses as possible and to consolidate their subject matter in divisional courses designed to give the student, first of all, a thoro understanding of the divisional field as a whole. The structure of the curriculum is thus pyramidal, proceeding from general courses in the college to divisional courses and then departmental courses in the divisions.

The professional schools have already decided or are in the process of deciding to admit students at the completion of their college work, that is, at the beginning of their junior year. This will mean in most cases an enriched professional curriculum, containing a considerable amount of non-professional work.

Almost simultaneously with the divisional organization the faculty began to make provision for interdepartmental and interdivisional cooperation in research and in teaching. We have no department of international relations; but in the division of the social sciences many men in different departments were working on different aspects of international problems. They have come together in the committee on international relations where they engage in joint research projects and supervise the work of students, recommending them for higher degrees to the social science division. In the humanities committees on language, on literature, and on culture perform the same function in that division. A type of interdivisional group is the committee on child development, now busy coordinating research in this field and soon to take up the question of teaching and recommending students for degrees in any division. A university activity that cuts across divisional lines may thus flourish without being restricted by such barriers.

Such a university activity is the preparation of teachers. Almost all departments are engaged in it. Many of them are engaged in little else. Yet the formal training of teachers has been accidentally relegated to one department, the School of Education. The effect of this has been to diminish the sense of responsibility felt by all the departments, to prevent the Department of Education from devoting itself to its proper field, the science of education, and to promote a certain degree of disharmony between that department and the rest. In recognition of the fact that the education of teachers is an undertaking of the entire institution we now propose to place that task on March 11 upon a university committee composed of representatives of all divisions and schools, and to relieve the School of Education of the

burden. The result will be clarification of the functions of that department and definite assumption by the whole University of a responsibility which belongs to all of it.

As we have studied for the past two and a half years the problems of general education we have become convinced that they cannot be readily solved by an organization with divided loyalties. We are certain, too, that an organization which has its students for only two years will always face great difficulties in the construction of a program designed to give a general education. In addition we have observed, like everybody else, the duplication and overlapping that have afflicted the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. Our college became a two-year unit in 1930. Our college faculty has been composed of members of the upper divisions, and has been, to a certain extent, a faculty of divided loyalties. The members of it have been concerned with general education in the college, and with research and advanced study in the divisions. They could not be appointed in the college without the approval of chairmen of departments whose interests might be exclusively in advanced work. Our high school has been a laboratory school of the Department of Education, under an administration separate from that of the college.

On January 12 the board of trustees on the recommendation of the senate approved two important proposals, one to incorporate the last two years of the University High School in the program of the college, and the other to permit the appointment of members of the college faculty without the concurrence of departmental chairmen or divisional deans. The first action gives us a four-year unit devoted to general education. The second gives us the chance to build up a faculty chosen because of its special interest and ability in this field. The four years devoted to general education will be under the administration of the college dean; the principal of University High School has become associate dean of the college.

This organization has been put into effect on the theory that a simple, workable, and defensible program for education in this country is a six-year primary school, a three- or four-year secondary school, and then various terminal courses of study, one of which deals exclusively with general education and the others of which, with a core of general education, are designed to prepare the student for work in technical or business fields. At the moment the University of Chicago is prepared to develop only the four-year curriculum in general education. Faculty committees are at work on this course of study now, with a view to offering a tentative experimental curriculum to students for the first time next fall.

The purpose of these actions is to provide an organization and a curriculum for the American system of public education, if not for it to use at least for it to consider. It will be clear to this audience, however, that this purpose cannot be accomplished if the University limits its experiments to general education. Altho I believe that we underestimate the significance of general education for all citizens, altho I am convinced that any ter-

minal course of study must give large attention to the cultural heritage of the race, I am sure also that beside the college there must grow up parallel institutions which will meet the needs of graduates of junior high schools who should be prepared for business, a home life, or technical activity. The needs of all graduates of all junior high schools cannot be met by general education alone. Therefore, as soon as possible, the University of Chicago, since it wishes to construct a program useful to the system of public education, must and will experiment with terminal courses of study of a technical or business character which will parallel the new four-year organization devoted to general education.

This, then, is in outline the program of the University of Chicago as it has developed to the present date. It remains to describe the results as we see them, the results of that part of the plan that has been put into effect. I must warn you to receive these remarks with even more than the usual caution with which you accept the statements of university presidents. No part of the plan has been in operation for more than a year and a half. We have little more than first impressions to report. And since we are all enthusiastic these impressions may reflect our emotional state rather than objective reality. From the administrative point of view I should say unqualifiedly that the changes we have made have promoted efficiency and economy. The reduction of the number of budgets from seventy-two to twelve, and the grant of real authority to the deans have given us an administrative scheme without which we could not have met the rapid decline in our income since 1930.

From the standpoint of attracting, retaining, and educating students, my impressions are equally favorable. Our applications increased in the first year of the new plan and have kept on increasing to the present time. The students admitted have been markedly superior by all tests that we could apply to any that we have had before. They appear to understand and value the opportunities offered to them by the new regulations or lack of them. Thirty-nine freshmen in the first year presented themselves for general examinations in subjects which they had studied by themselves, without benefit of instruction. They all passed, and passed with an average higher than the general average of the class. Altho these are times in which we should expect no program to assist in the retention of students, we find that the holding power of the new plan is 5 percent greater than that of the old.

The faculty has been notably successful, I believe, in humanizing the sciences, in de-professionalizing freshman and sophomore instruction in these fields and making the science courses contribute to a general education. The museum developed at the quadrangles in cooperation with the Rosenwald Museum of Science and Industry has largely replaced laboratory work. The new sound pictures in the physical sciences have greatly simplified and improved the ordinary demonstration-lecture technic. In general, good students seem to come to the University because of the new plan; they seem to stay there because of it; and they seem to flourish under it.

Altho the curriculum, the examination system, and the advisory service all leave something to be desired, I am satisfied that they are all definitely superior to anything we had before 1931. The examinations have proved a tremendous labor to the teaching and examining staff. Since the examinations are published and distributed, new ones will have to be prepared each time they are given, so that the labor will never end. Nevertheless, we are developing a group of examiners who understand the curriculum and a group of instructors who understand examinations; this will mean the gradual elimination of much waste motion that has beset us in the past two years.

During the summer quarter the administrative, examining, and teaching staffs will give for those interested in the administrative, examining, and teaching problems in college a series of six courses indicating in detail the methods that we employ and the results that we think we are achieving.

These courses will enable those concerned with college problems to learn at first hand from our professors who are doing the work what is actually going on at Chicago. I commend them to you as a wholesome antidote to presidential addresses.

From the point of view of the organization of education, elementary, secondary, collegiate, and university, I am clear that Chicago has taken some suggestive steps. But here, I must admit, I have little but faith to sustain me. I believe, I do not know, that a six-year primary school, a three- or four-year secondary school, a three- or four-year college, paralleled by three- or four-year technical institutes, and followed by the university is a sound, efficient, and economical organization of education. At any rate, I think it is worth trying. Certain impressions from our experience may be relevant. Our experience seems to show that the natural association of students is not in a group covering the four years of the typical college of liberal arts, but rather in two groups which separate in the middle of that college. Our divisional students, who are juniors, seniors, and graduate students, have developed a divisional consciousness and a community of interest quite distinct from those of the freshmen and sophomores who constitute our college. The natural associates of the freshmen and sophomores, on the other hand, seem to be the juniors and seniors in high school. Certainly the faculties of the upper divisions have developed a divisional consciousness; and the faculty of the college is coming more and more to see that its problems are distinct from those of the upper divisions and allied with those of the last two years of the high school.

The development of divisional consciousness has been a striking phenomenon, for it has marked a change in the traditional departmental feeling of the University of Chicago. The construction of divisional courses of study, of divisional examinations, of divisional requirements, and of divisional research projects has brought allied departments together as never before for the good of the students and of one another. In the biological sciences this change has been of peculiar significance, for there the clinical medical departments have become members of the division along with the

pre-clinical and non-clinical biologists. The group is therefore a unique association of biologists, who because of a common administration and a common purpose are likely to have some influence on the course of education and research in medicine and in biology as a whole.

In the same way the inclusion of the School of Education in the Division of the Social Sciences seems to me fraught with important consequences for the science of education and for the social studies. The tendency of American universities to regard educational specialists as people who had the queer idea that they could and would train public school teachers has done the greatest damage to universities and to scholars in education. The social sciences have missed association with one of the most important, if not the most important, of the social studies; departments of education have sometimes had a professional or even a vocational cast thrust upon them. At Chicago, the Department of Education is an integral part of the Division of the Social Sciences, to the infinite advantage of both.

I offer this description of what the University of Chicago is doing, not because these things are the only things that are being done in the university area. It is only necessary to refer to the great contributions that are being made by the great university situated in this city to remind you that even we at Chicago are conscious that other institutions, and notably the University of Minnesota, are engaged in work of fundamental importance to the future of education. It may well be that everything that we are doing is wrong. I do not greatly care if it is, for I trust to the intelligence of educators to point out our errors and thus save both themselves and us from the final fatal consequences of our mistakes. So the Chicago plan is not the only plan. It may not be the best plan. It is not a plan that we recommend to anybody else. It may have no ultimate significance whatever. The only reason that I think it worthwhile to present it here is that it may serve to remind us that even in times of great financial distress it is possible for us to direct some attention to what is after all our main task, the improvement of education in the United States.

GENERAL SESSION, THURSDAY AFTERNOON, MARCH 2

The New Frontiers for Extension Education

DANGERS IN THE NEW LEISURE AREA

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Does leisure warrant our concern? Are the activities at which an individual spends his leisure hours of influence in his development? Social workers dealing with delinquents were the first to call attention to this question. Have you ever considered comparatively the influence of work and recreation or leisure time activities upon the life of an individual? Have you heard of many individuals going wrong while at work or while in school? A national survey of arrests made in 1923 showed that 80 per-

cent of the arrests listed were made for misdemeanors committed not during the working hours but during the leisure hours of the individuals concerned. The sad feature of this survey is that 71 percent of this 80 percent were under twenty-one years of age.

Leisure is a great by-product of the machine but one which has not been taken seriously, has received nowhere near the attention that has been given by efficiency experts to material by-products in industry. Its value has not yet been discovered. Are we going to make it a detriment or a blessing? Preparation for its use is one of the greatest problems confronting us today. We must bring our people to a realization that the shortening of hours of labor is not a release from but a release for, not an escape from labor but a liberation from the material for the cultivation and enjoyment of things cultural and spiritual. As Howard Braucher of the National Recreation Association recently said, "Leisure must mean freedom with control and self-control with freedom."

Many communities have for years been making splendid provision for playgrounds and athletic fields. In the early days, playgrounds were more or less prompted by sentiment—but they need no longer be defended from this standpoint. While I hope the day will never come when we divorce sentiment from our program of playgrounds, they can be justified upon the basis of cold dollars and cents for it has been proved that expenditures for playfields, or more truly stated, investments in playfields, result in savings on courts and corrective institutions.

Municipal planners are recognizing that in a city set-up a recreation department is as important as a health department or a fire department. Up to date health officials do not sit in their offices in wait for an epidemic. They are constantly on the job preventing epidemics thru education and eradication of conditions of menace to health. Likewise the modern fire department is active not only upon call of the alarm, but makes fire prevention its watchword. Many cities have still to learn that prevention is wiser and less costly than correction, not only in matter of germs and flames but also in the case of boys and girls.

If ever we needed clear thinking about true and false economy in matters of education and recreation we need it in this present crisis when the public is so prone to think with its pockets. Youth cannot and will not wait for the depression to be over. Its growth, its character development go on for good or evil according to the nurture and guidance we give it. There is something far worse than financial bankruptcy, that is, a mental and spiritual bankruptcy.

What is recreation? The popular mind is still inclined to limit its conception of recreation activities to athletic games and outdoor sports. In fact, many municipal recreation departments conduct only this type of recreation or devote the major portion of their effort to outdoor recreation. The promotion of sports and outdoor activity forms a very large portion of a recreation department's responsibility and we Americans are still far from being the outdoor people we should be, but sports by no means are the sole responsibility of a recreation department.

Last summer, the secretary of our Y. W. C. A. told me joyously, "I am getting ready for my vacation. My trunk is one-third full of books. My sister and I are going to a camp in Maine and oh, what fun it will be to sit under the pines and read!" "But," she added, "it will not be done without difficulty. Two years ago I did the same thing but I never left for the woods but what sister would remonstrate, 'Such an idea of a vacation! Sit and read!' " That sister happened to be a librarian in Connecticut.

I ask again what is the difference between work and play? Is it not a mental attitude?

It is true many like to play with balls, others prefer to play with chess men, others with strands of wool and silk—some with lumber and saw, some with paints and color, some with clay, some with human situations thru dramatics, some with tones of music, some with rhythm, some with words and phrases.

This interpretation makes a recreation program almost limitless. With this concept in mind, the Milwaukee Social Centers carry out a fourfold program. Attendance in the evening is limited to adults and to boys and girls beyond the elementary grades.

In the last analysis, the real mission of a recreation department is not merely recreation but creation—creation of leisure time interest or hobbies, and simple skills. Skills lead to avocation. It is an educational responsibility—education for the wise use of leisure. The more varied these interests and skills, however simple they be, the richer the life of the individual. A one track leisure time interest may become a detriment.

Enriching the leisure time interests of an individual extends in influence beyond the individual into the community. To have symphony a community must have understanding music lovers, to bring drama to the community requires appreciation of the drama, art exhibits must be backed by an art loving public.

Milwaukee, feeling that recreation is education and should have the same quality of thought and guidance as does the academic life of its youth, has placed the responsibility for its municipal recreation into the hands of the schoolboard, putting into its care the public playgrounds, the municipal athletics, and the social centers.

It is our responsibility to train our boys and girls—our homes, yes, our entire community—not only for work but for play—not only for labor but for leisure—to enrich lives with interests and simple skills, in games, art, music, drama, literature, conversation, nature, companionships, inner resources upon which to draw for leisure time happiness and growth.

INTERPROFESSIONAL FRONTIERS

CHARLES H. MAYO, M.D., ROCHESTER, MINN.

"Take interest, I implore you, in the sacred dwellings which one designates by the expressive term: *laboratories*. Demand that they be multiplied, that they be adorned: these are the temples of well-being and happiness,

There it is that humanity grows greater, stronger, better." This was the admonition of Pasteur who, thru his investigations of fermentation and the diseases of beer and wine, laid the foundations of the science of bacteriology. About seventy years ago Pasteur proved that the disorders of fermentation which were causing great economic loss were due to the overgrowth of yeast by bacteria and that heating to 150° F. would destroy most of the germs and secure preservation of the product—hence the now familiar process of pasteurization. For Pasteur, in his school laboratory or in the workaday laboratories of the vintners and the brewers, showed that the diseases of animals and plants could be brought about by the activities of specific microbes and justified the prediction of Robert Boyle who, in the seventeenth century, asserted that the man who discovered the cause of fermentation would learn a great deal about disease. So from the professional pioneer work of Pasteur has come the past half century or more of brilliant researches concerning the causes of infectious diseases and man's ability to control in large part epidemics and scourges.

Frontier lines are the border lines of civilization's safety. As the battle of man versus microbes is more intelligently and scientifically waged we see the frontier lines extended with the development of a new geography of border lines of safety, with the areas of death heavily laid in black, carrying the skull and cross bones of the pirates of disease. But the frontiers of disease do not recede as rapidly as they should. The greatest foes of the health officers are those who produce, handle, or sell perishable food which, in order to be kept clean, means an added economic cost. Every possible invading source of contamination must be carefully watched by chemist, bacteriologist, and those trained for the preservation of the health or the progress of the people. Each oncoming generation, as well as those of more mature and presumably wiser years, must be told and retold and shown again and again that man's program of economy is all too often a program of extreme costliness, for an ounce of prevention is worth pounds of cure and costs less in the toll levied in terms of dollars and cents as well as in the more priceless physical prosperity. For instance, many states and communities provide for water surveys, prevention of contamination of water supplies, purification and filtration of water in order that the people may have pure water—nature's first and most important drink. Yet in a western state a recent epidemic of typhoid fever will doubtless cost a quarter of a million dollars. The annual interest on this amount of money would provide statewide protection and guarantee the communities pure water. But there will be no annual interest to invest and, more serious still, it is likely that little if any mental interest will be forthcoming.

Wisely did Pasteur admonish us to take interest in the sacred dwellings which we call laboratories. And we know full well that he did not have in mind, as he uttered these words, grandeur of buildings, pomp and display but rather systematized and orderly workrooms devoted to thought and to experimentation. Places remote and secluded from the ordinary run of

workaday affairs having to do with the wherewithal shall we be fed and wherewithal shall we be clothed; sacred dwellings in which men and women might experience the great adventure and labor for the love of the truth and in search of the truth, and in the hope that the frontiers of knowledge might be extended, be that extension ever so slight. It has been such contributions that have constituted the extension of the frontiers into the no man's land of the unknown. The world of 1894 appreciated but little a report that Roentgen had made a tube whose light was powerful enough to penetrate solid matter and throw a shadow of the bones of a hand on a photographic plate. And we may suspect that Roentgen did not, in the early days of his X-ray tubes, appreciate the full significance of his laboratory researches, how they would open up to the world of medicine a most powerful tool in both the diagnosis of disease and in its treatment and how, in turn, they would, in the hands of Thomson, Van Laue and scores of other physicists, open to man's consciousness a realization and appreciation of the constitution of matter, with its protons, electrons, photons, gamma rays, and cosmic rays. Little did Stokes dream that his investigations on the laws governing the descent of small droplets of water would serve, when extended by such men as Thomson, Wilson and Millikan, to determine the value of the elemental unit of electricity. And the Curies, as they worked in the simplest of surroundings and with the greatest of personal sacrifices—inspired by the discovery of a fogged photographic plate which might have been classed as an accident by Becquerel rather than a frontier border line—little dreamed of the great service which radium has rendered in the treatment of malignant growths.

These and like discoveries have opened up untold avenues of scientific attack and have advanced the frontiers of knowledge in chemistry, physics, metallurgy, biology, bacteriology, and medicine. No man liveth to himself. No science liveth to itself. No longer can one draw the lines of demarcation in scientific endeavor and developments. A new fact added in chemistry or physics may have as great or greater significance in the biological sciences. To modify the number of chromosomes, to change the metabolism of cells, to hasten or slow up the life cycles or to endow living matter with new properties may be of vastly greater importance than an understanding of the physical and chemical agents and their actions on the realm of non-living things. But a knowledge of and control of various types of radiant energy which enables an atom of nitrogen to be turned into an atom of carbon or, perchance, an atom of mercury into an atom of gold, may be the sesame that will open up modifications of cells and tissue and possibly even the secret of life itself. For we know that the green leaf takes of the solar energy, thru its chlorophyll, and mixes this sunshine with the lifeless molecules of carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen and produces sugars and carbohydrates—food for plants and man alike, and therefore life.

In the last quarter of a century we have learned that the body is fed not only by the sunshine bottled and canned directly from the solar energy taken up by the plant world but also directly by the absorption of those

invisible radiations of sunlight which are called ultraviolet rays. For the body is a myriad of cells; its covering, the skin, is everywhere studded with sensitive spots and each of these groups is a trapper of radiations of definite wave lengths. The influence of this reception of energy is transported internally to millions of cells situated in different tissues and this reception of energy alters and changes matter and endows it with new properties. These are the days when we hear and read much about the advantages of being "sunkist" and the necessity of including in the foods we take into our bodies those invisible but nevertheless vital, virile accessory food factors known as vitamins. While we know relatively little about the vitamins as to what they are, we know a great deal about what they do, where they are to be found and how they are to be most readily procured.

For generations on generations the sun has been worshipped as the great source of both light and life. The ancient Aryans, Persians, and Egyptians made the body's reception of the sun's rays a part of their religion. But as Christianity spread there was an exclusion of all so-called pagan practises. There was no awakening to the beneficent effects of sunlight until the beginning of the nineteenth century. In the past hundred or two hundred years the aggressive peoples of the temperate zones have turned from being tillers of the soil to dwellers in the city. Industrialism and the creation of machinery brought in their wake rapidly thrown together towns and cities, narrow streets with no drainage and into which the sunshine could scarcely penetrate. As the machine age has progressed there has been a corresponding progressive belching of vast clouds of soot and smoke, blotting out and almost literally strangling the sunbeams carrying healing in their touch. By reason, therefore, of the rise of industrialism and man's unconscious forgetting of the fact that he is first, last, and always an animal has he brought on himself a group of deficiency diseases. For he has robbed himself of the outdoor sunshine which makes solid, straight bones out of the phosphorus and calcium of his food and he has loaded his table with foods deficient in mineral ingredients and in those virile, vital elements which make for good teeth free from dental caries, normal nutrition, and proper growth, and which prevent certain types of nervous dysfunction and, in extreme depletion, aggravated conditions of scurvy, beriberi, pellagra and the like. Hence the last twenty-five years have witnessed a great advance in the professional frontier of civilization's safety with respect to deficiency diseases. These researches were stimulated by the pioneer work of nutritionalists who believed that what we are is largely a matter of what we eat or what we do not eat and how the body uses, oxidizes, or burns the fuel which we call food. For in 1906 Hopkins wrote: "But further, no animal can live on a mixture of pure protein, fat, and carbohydrate." Casimir Funk, the Polish nutritionalist, in 1912 asserted: "There is a force that exerts vital guardianship over the nutritive processes by which inert material is translated into human feeling, thought, and action. This force I call *vitamine*, because it is the warden of health, because it is necessary to life." What miracles hath science wrought since these pioneer laboratory adven-

tures of men like Hopkins and Funk! And yet, withal, how stupendous our ignorance—for we are but at the first-stage border line. But we are making progress, for our towns and cities have ordinances concerning smoke and our engineers are not only gaining in the efficiency of consumption of fuel but also in the abatement of the smoke nuisance. And if our work keeps us indoors and our children are forced to additional hours of housing within school buildings, the presentday makers of electric incandescent lamps are taking the product of the wizard of light, Edison, and causing it to give us visible light and the ultraviolet content of a summer's day. And our biophysicists, biochemists, and biologists have step by step been able to energize and vitaminize our foods to the point that a few milligrams of an isolated organic substance, thru exposure to suitable brief irradiation, acquires an antirachitic potency equivalent to that of an entire quart of good cod-liver oil. Such researches inspire an increased respect for the importance of little things in nutrition, and reiterate the dictum that nothing is too small to be of significance and no thread of inquiry so fragile as to be discarded.

I have dwelt briefly on the advancement of the frontiers of civilization's safety in matters pertaining to man's physical prosperity from the standpoints of his mastery, in considerable part, of those diseases which come from contamination of his food and water supplies and of those diseases which come from deficiency of sunshine and vitalizing accessory food factors. I turn now to a consideration of the advancement made in the knowledge of and prevention of diseases carried by insects and other animals. Reed, Carroll, Agramonte and Lazear, just a third of a century ago, proved the theory stated by Carlos Finlay in 1881 that a specific type of mosquito was the carrier of yellow fever. The French had adequate machinery for building the Panama Canal but they lost more than 30,000 laborers and some of their best engineers and scientists and were finally forced to flee from this pestilential zone. But Gorgas, backed by the knowledge gained from the researches concerning yellow fever and mosquitoes, destroyed the favorable environment for the growth of the mosquito by draining swamps and covering breeding grounds with petroleum sprays. The building of the canal was a great feat of engineering thru skillful coordination of brains and brawn, but the ability to keep the brains and brawn in action and to keep men alive and healthy was the result of researches on the carrying of disease by insects and because Surgeon General Gorgas realized that the canal could not be built without the elimination of the breeding places of mosquitoes.

It is of interest to note that the first insect carrier of disease was discovered by The Bureau of Animal Industry of the United States Government aided by Dr. Theobald Smith. Smith found the germ of Texas cattle fever in 1886 but it was some years later before he was able to prove that the germs were carried by ticks from diseased to healthy animals. Ticks are also the cause of Rocky Mountain fever. It is stated that the annual loss of domestic animals caused by disease-carrying ticks amounts to nearly \$50,000,000.

Then came Ross who, in 1898, showed that malaria was carried by a particular type of mosquito and that the minute spores, which enter the salivary gland of the mosquito, are passed into the blood streams of men by the poisonous saliva of the mosquito as it bites, producing the disease in men just as surely as tho injected by a hypodermic needle. So, from the fruitful researches of Smith and Kilbourne concerning cattle tick and Texas fever, and the proof by Ross that malarial mosquitoes are the carriers of human malaria, scientists have accumulated many proofs to indict insects and ticks for the entire responsibility of inflicting on man and beast such diseases as malaria, yellow fever, typhus fever, trench fever, bubonic plague, Rocky Mountain spotted fever, dengue, elephantiasis, and many others.

Man can never get away from insects. At work and at play, out of doors and indoors, in life and in death, insects are his great competitors in that they destroy the works of his hand and are among his greatest enemies as they carry to him disease and death.

The interprofessional frontiers have been so stupendously advanced in the last half century that humanity has grown greater, stronger and better in matters that concern physical prosperity and in the understanding of the workings of Nature. But the great interprofessional pioneering still remains—a knowledge of man as a composite of body, mind, and soul. We may well believe man to be the pinnacle or apex of a mighty pyramid whose foundation strata and supervening structure consist of the discoveries in physical, chemical, and biological sciences, psychology, economics, and sociology. Complex man can be understood only thru the discovery of the laws governing his inner environmental self as associated with and influenced by his outer environment. The greatest study in the world is the study of man.

NEW PROBLEMS IN ADULT EDUCATION

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In considering the subject, "New Problems in Adult Education," I am inclined to omit the word "new" because, so far as the educational thinking of the masses of our people is concerned, practically all problems of adult education are "new." In the main, the legislators who enact our laws and many of those who administer our schools think of education in terms of children only. They have not accepted the psychological findings on adult learning and made them a part of an educational philosophy which reflects itself in a nationwide program of adult education. While 4,000,000 students are provided instruction which can be classified under adult education, agencies other than the public schools have accepted responsibility for much of the instruction. Our first concern, at the initiation of this discussion, is that the public-school system of the nation assume its full responsibility for the continuing education of its citizens even in the face of declining financial support. We are concerned that America does not deprive its youth of the education which will enable it to live in the future. We should be equally

concerned that we do not deprive our adult population of their right to existence and understanding in the present. Our first problem, therefore, is a problem of the extension of frontiers in educational thinking which will cause school administrators, supervisors, and teachers to appreciate their opportunities and obligations for a continuing adult education program. It will not be possible to discuss in detail all of the new problems which confront adult education at the present time. Special emphasis will be given those problems which are peculiar to the present economic crisis. Such problems may be divided as follows:

1. Problems in economics and sociology resulting from changed economic and social conditions
2. Problems of enforced and voluntary leisure
3. Problems of vocational training in industry on the farm and in the home
4. Problems of America's unidentified youth.

The first problem I have mentioned is not altogether new. It has existed, unrecognized, until a national crisis has brought it to our attention. It is the problem of instructing the citizenship of the nation in the fundamental facts and principles of economics and sociology in order that there may be intelligent decisions on the nation's problems.

The content of adult education courses in economics and sociology might include such topics as (1) the relationship of tariffs to problems of trade; (2) the relationship of a sound monetary system to economic stability; (3) the effect of scientific development and the use of the machine on unemployment; (4) the effect of the shorter working day and week in providing employment; (5) the effect of recent economic changes upon the character of employment in different vocations. Many other phases of economics and sociology could well be included in such instruction. It is not to be expected that the masses of our people can be transformed into economists and sociologists. An adult education program can provide such instruction to furnish the basic knowledge necessary in evaluating the various plans which have been proposed for economic and social rehabilitation.

There have been many criticisms on the lack of economic, social, and political leadership in our present crisis. It should be unnecessary to emphasize the need for the strongest national, state, and local leadership which can be produced. It should be as unnecessary to say that leadership alone is not sufficient. Our nation is founded upon the philosophy of self-determination. Our leaders can solve problems only as the masses of our citizenship think with them.

A limited number of recent surveys indicate a growing adult interest in intensive courses dealing with economic, social, and civic problems. Such training should be an increasing responsibility of the public-school system and its cooperating agencies. It should also be an obligation of both public and private universities and colleges. If we do not wish the "man on the streets" to decide questions of vast economic, civic, and social importance

on a basis of radicalism and selfish propaganda, then we must supply the necessary information thru which intelligent decisions can be made.

The problem of adult training for leisure has become increasingly important even in times of economic prosperity. Unemployment has added another problem, since we now have not only the problem of training for leisure, but also the more difficult problem of occupation for idleness. Both the immediate and the long-time programs of training for leisure will need to be met with certain fundamental economic and social premises in mind. Whatever our individual wishes may be, we must realize that the depression will not mark the end of the machine age. So long as it is economically profitable to improve machines and thus improve production, machines will be improved and goods will be produced thru their use.

There has been much argument between those who would emphasize training for work and those who would stress training for leisure. May not both schools of thought be, at least, partially correct? A thirty-hour week in American industry, with profits from the use of improved machines accruing to labor as well as capital, does not mean less emphasis on training for work. In fact, more vocational training may be needed. Without question it does mean more emphasis on training for leisure. The limitations of an adult education program, which will bring about proper uses of leisure time, must be recognized also. As Dean W. F. Russell states, "Our children from the time that they are small must not only come to understand but actually become habituated to the gateways to true and lasting enjoyment. It is a matter of music and art, of literature and drama, of play and games, of politics, of supplementary hobbies and avocations." Adult education for leisure thus cannot be substituted for such training in earlier years. Neither can occupation for idleness take the place of employment. Proper recreation and entertainment for unemployed persons may be a healthy opiate but it is not a cure. The remedy must be found in a more equitable distribution of opportunity to work, even in normal times. Within the limitations mentioned, however, the training of adults for leisure has assumed an important place in the nation's program for relieving unemployment.

Recreation, entertainment, the development of avocations, may not be substitutes for employment; but they can do much to keep up morale during a period of enforced idleness.

It was not necessary for our people to experience a depression in order to have many new problems in vocational education for adults. For many years profound and rapid economic changes have been occurring which vitally affect the vocational education program. There has been a decrease in the number of persons engaged in the production of manufactured goods and a corresponding increase in the number of people employed in distributive processes. Technical knowledge has become more important in industry than human skill. There has been a greater amount of job changing. Many old occupations have been disappearing and new occupations have risen to take their place. Men stenographers and typists have decreased 18 per cent and women stenographers and typists have increased 37 percent. The influence of

the machine age has not been confined to industry and commerce. Agriculture has felt its influence also. The combine of today's wheat fields represents an increase in efficiency of nearly 6000 percent over the sickle of pioneer days.

To the many current problems of adult vocational education must be added those problems which have resulted from the present economic crisis. Not more than two years ago an editorial appeared in the *Journal of the National Education Association* which read as follows: "The great task of America is not to get a living. We may take that for granted. The great task is so to establish the values of life that an art of living shall emerge among the masses." It is evident that we took too much for granted in those more prosperous days. While the art of living must not be forgotten, neither can we overlook the cold fact that 12,000,000 of our people are at present concerned primarily in securing such basic necessities of life as food, clothing, and shelter. While many of them are unskilled laborers, this army of the unemployed includes in its ranks many people with college training. There are some who would pass practically the entire responsibility for the present unemployment training and the later retraining and replacement of these people upon business, industry, labor, and various voluntary agencies. For the public-school system of America to refuse training opportunities to these millions would be the crime of the ages. Society has been largely responsible for their present economic condition. It should not shirk its serious obligation of providing opportunity for guidance, retraining, and replacement at public expense in what we hope will be the era of economic reconstruction.

The rural phases of adult vocational education constitute quite a different problem. There is no dearth of employment in rural America today, except as there may be no outlet into industry and commerce for the surplus of farm youth. There is certainly no lack of food on the farms of the nation. There is certainly no immediate danger of our farms being depopulated. In fact the opposite is true. The Census Bureau tells us that the farm population of the United States now equals that of 1910—the highest in the nation's history. It might be thought that under such conditions there would be little need of a rural program of adult education. Yet it is a common consensus of opinion among farm leaders that no program of permanent relief for agriculture can come except as it is based upon a broad and inclusive program of adult agricultural education for the people on America's farms. Rural people are facing their present situation with courage. They are taking advantage of such part-time and evening course instruction as has been offered. Rural surveys indicate that they are particularly desirous of courses in economics and marketing which will permit a reorganization of the farm business.

The present crisis in American agriculture offers the greatest opportunity for adult education which has ever presented itself to our rural high schools. In thousands of such schools evening courses can be offered at a very slight additional cost. It has been said that rural life in America is at the cross roads. A nationwide program of evening course instruction may enable rural

America to so readjust itself that it may be able to produce the nation's food supply and yet maintain high standards of living.

The last problem which I shall present for your consideration is not entirely a problem of adult education, nor is it a child problem. It is a problem of the "in-betweens"—those who are not classed as men and women or as children. In their numbers are included millions of young people between sixteen and twenty-five years of age which I call America's unidentified youth. Not all of the nomads of earth are wandering over Africa's deserts. It is estimated that one-half million American youth under twenty-one years of age are traveling this nation's highways. This army of youth, large as it may seem, is only a small part of a larger group in both urban and rural communities who are being given comparatively little attention by our various educational agencies. Some of them are high-school and college graduates and represent what we proudly term the output of the public schools. The majority of them constitute what Dr. Cooley of Milwaukee calls the "put out" of the public schools. In my own state we have made careful and extensive surveys of these youth as they exist on Ohio's farms. Below sixteen years of age they are held in school by attendance laws, and above twenty-five they take on the responsibilities and associations of adult life. A typical member of the group is unmarried, he has no managerial responsibilities, he belongs to no organizations, he dropped out of school because of failure in his school work or because of lack of interest in it, he is interested in his future vocation but has had very little guidance or training for it. The majority of these youth can aid in farm work and in that respect they are more fortunate than the youth of the cities. For the urban youth, particularly for those without vocational training, there is almost no opportunity for productive employment. Is it any wonder that, out of the millions of these youth, one-half million are hitch-hiking, jungle camping, jumping freight trains, street begging, securing food and shelter in bread lines, free lodging houses, or by means even more questionable? Shall we be surprised when we learn that the greater proportion of convictions for robbery, assault, burglary, and larceny are from persons between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-four years? Many facts concerning America's army of unidentified youth are unknown. Of one fact regarding them we can be very sure. They constitute the potential citizenship upon which the next generation must depend for its decisions. The nation, and particularly our schools, cannot discharge their responsibility to these youth by saying that they did not conform to our standards of education. There must be a program of guidance, training, and retraining, recreation and social life which will adjust them to the society of today and tomorrow. We doubt if any group offers such a challenge to our public schools as do the unidentified youth of the nation. What then are the current problems in adult education confronting the educational leadership of the nation? There is the nationwide problem of providing such adult instruction as will enable the citizenship of the nation to make intelligent decisions in questions of economics and sociology. There is the pressing problem of providing training for leisure and occupation for idle-

ness, particularly among the nation's unemployed. There is the very complex problem of adult vocational courses for those who have lacked such training, the retraining of those who are the victims of technological unemployment, and supplementary training for those whose previous training has been too narrow. There is the problem of adult education for a changed rural life which will enable such rural life to reorganize its farm business and to have a better understanding of rural economics and marketing. There is the adult education problem in homemaking resulting from changed economic and social conditions in America's homes. There is the problem of America's unidentified rural and urban youth, many of whom can be served best thru the processes and subjectmatter of adult education. Interwoven with all the problems which have been mentioned is the problem of an emergency program for the unemployed which will offer to them any type of adult education which will better prepare them for the future and will keep up their health, their morale, and their confidence in the present.

THE IMPORTANCE OF EXTENSION EDUCATION IN MAINTAINING AN EDUCATED CITIZENRY

WILLIAM J. BOGAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

The aphorism with which H. G. Wells startled the world a few years ago, "civilization is a race between education and catastrophe," has implications of unusual importance to the United States. The education to which Wells refers is education of great extent, education deep and wide and so comprehensive as to include prophetic possibilities. Plainly he meant much more than Americans usually mean when they speak of education for all the children of all the people. Wells would extend education not only in the schools but far beyond, for the education necessary to save civilization must be more extensive in its scope and more efficient than any type yet devised. Catastrophe travels in seven league boots. Therefore, education in this race should keep its foot on the accelerator. The proposal to return, in the interest of economy, to the primitive education of old generations is a confession of defeat unworthy of a people boastful of its idealism. The most dangerous element of catastrophe lies within mankind itself, not outside in providential storm, famine, pestilence, or earthquake—not even in the Frankenstein of machinery. Education should accept the challenge of catastrophe and plan to defeat it.

The extension of education might well begin in the lower schools. In fact this has been done in many places. A great advance was made several years ago when a program was set up for the completion of the task of teaching pupils the use of the simple, mechanical tools of education in the first six grades. Gradually the waste and formalism of elementary education were eliminated; and thru the junior high school there was given the opportunity for greater freedom, individuality, creation, and the study of interesting and

profitable subjects brought down from the senior high school. It seems fitting, therefore, that the senior high school should join in the reform. Unfortunately, a study of the philosophy of the traditional four-year high school seems to indicate that this philosophy is a haphazard one. It is partly a philosophy of self. The senior high school shares with the junior college duplications and wasteful subjects that hinder the acquisition of a high type of education at an early age. Clearly it is possible to adopt a philosophy of secondary education that will render genuine service to the individual and to society, and at the same time cut out the dead timber of an outgrown civilization. Education can well be extended thru concentration. Already the time schedules of the German gymnasium and the French lycee are undergoing adaptations in several places to American conditions, notably in the lower schools of the University of Chicago where President Hutchins is experimenting with a four-year college consisting of the last two years of the high school and the first two years of the traditional college. If this plan is successful in the field of general education, it will be tried in semi-professional or semi-technical phases of education of a terminal nature. The general effect of such a highly concentrated plan will be to extend college education of various types far and wide.

Outside the formal day school type of education is the evening school, which in recent years has developed into two distinct branches: first, the opportunity type which ministers to the esthetic, spiritual, or practical needs of the students in a rather spasmodic manner; and second, the accredited type which serves the needs of students who wish formal high-school and college education. The opportunity type of evening school appeals generally to a youthful constituency that has lost day school opportunities at an early age and to elderly people who have a limited number of specific needs. The accredited evening school is the typical college preparatory institution. In these institutions the work is on a par with that of the regulation day high school and is therefore accepted at face value by the colleges of the Middle-west. In Chicago about 25,000 boys and girls are taking courses in these institutions; some begin with graduation from eighth grade, and others complete work all along the high-school route.

The correspondence school has great possibilities for the extension of education, for it reaches a type of student to whom the other schools make little appeal. Its greatest defects are lack of personal contact and the mechanical labor of transcribing lessons. When cheap, efficient methods of recording and transmitting lessons and material from student to teacher have been perfected, there will be a great advance in this type of extension education.

One of the most efficient methods of extending education is the lecture. A small number of the intelligentsia secure these lectures on a commercial basis, but the possibilities of wider diffusion are great.

The importance of extension education in maintaining an educated citizenry presupposes the need for an educated citizenry; but why the special need? Why should the extension of education be of more importance to the

people of America than to those of other countries? The answer lies in the need for the perpetuation of democratic government and ideals. This nation is committed to democracy. Rule by the people presupposes rule by an educated people. This rule must be preserved at all times and at all hazards even in the face of an indifference that calmly admits in this country the possibility of a fair choice between democracy and dictatorship. In Europe the man on horseback can be seen sometimes as a shadow and sometimes as a personality, but he is ever present, even in democratic Britain. The mass attacks on education in all parts of this country give the impression that the powerful few realize that dictatorship would be less expensive to them financially than democracy proceeding from an expensive public-school system. It were well for them to know, however, that it is possible to pay too high a price for the privilege of dictatorship. The American public should realize that the problems confronting the peoples of the world today can be solved only thru dictatorship or thru an educated citizenry in a democracy. Whether dictatorship be represented by the man on horseback, or by the gods in the counting-house, or by the great captains of industry, it is the duty of the public schools to preserve for posterity the blessings of life, liberty, and happiness proclaimed as the objectives of democracy by the founders of the Republic of the United States of America. Is it likely that the so-called common man will knowingly toss beyond the reach of his own children those blessings which his forefathers or other forefathers fought, bled and died to attain? Not if he has education enough to read the pictures. He at least will realize the necessity for an educated citizenry.

The importance of extension education to the maintenance of an educated citizenry is appreciated only by the few. People take it for granted that education of sufficient degree is provided for elementary and secondary schools. They do not realize the fact that thousands never receive the benefit of these schools; and that if they did receive these benefits, there would yet remain the necessity for extension education. Education is not static—it should continue thruout life, and the best education will fall far short of ideal requirements. People should be educated, not where we think they ought to be educated but where they are. When the Great Teacher wished to spread the teachings of the new religion thru the disciples no particular social class or people was selected. The simple command was given: "Go forth and teach all nations."

The need for an educated citizenry was never greater than at present, for a new defeatism is paralyzing economics, statesmanship, agriculture, commerce, and industry. Instead of rising up as one man to prevent defeat, the world invites it. We are seriously asked to go back to the days preceding the first industrial revolution and scrap all the progress down to the present and renounce all hope for the future. Men are invited to return to the soil where the beauties of the simple life may be enjoyed and a kind nature will provide milk and honey.

Who shall pay for extension education? To be consistent with American policy the local community and the state should bear the expense, but we are

a practical people and we live in difficult times. Desirable as a thoroly educated citizenry is, there comes a doubt as to how much of the expense the people should bear. Whether this expense be borne by the students or by the public or by both, it is certain that the school is the cheapest agency for meeting this demand. To be successful in the great task of education and reeducation, training and retraining, adjustment and readjustment, the school must assume a leadership which will press into service for the common good all the educative forces of the community. Only by coordinating and to some extent guiding the educational operations of these agencies can the community hope for efficiency in extension education.

The days of the pioneers of geographical discovery, exploration, and settlement are gone. American industry has reached the frontier—the frontier of the continent, the frontier of adventure, the frontier of natural resources, the frontier of labor—and now it must return to the gleanings, the stumpage, the screenings, the untrained laborers left by a reckless people who in a chastened mood are slowly realizing the necessity for discovering in their own ambitions, their own energies, and their own idealism the sources of greater blessings than those originally provided by crude nature.

CLOSING CEREMONIES

SUPERINTENDENT GLENN: Mr. Chairman and Friends: It is my happy privilege, as the close of this meeting approaches, to perform a duty commissioned to me by the Executive Committee of our Department.

In recognition of the splendid program prepared and administered by our retiring president, and in appreciation of him as a man and as an educator, I have the honor of presenting to him the Past President's key, with the esteem and affection and good wishes of every member of the Department of Superintendence.

PRESIDENT POTTER: Mr. Glenn of Alabama has made Alabama an even more lovely word to me than it has been before.

Right up to the present moment, up to the address so gloriously delivered, and so happily received by this small but select audience, by Superintendent Bogan, I feel that this program has been a rising crescendo, and I am very happy that the Board of Directors, thru Superintendent Glenn, concur in that opinion.

The time has come for the close of a very happy year for me, and I hope a very profitable week for you. The convention stands adjourned.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES—MINNEAPOLIS CONVENTION

February 25

The sixty-third annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence was held in the Municipal Auditorium, Minneapolis, Minnesota. On Saturday afternoon, February 25, 1933, at four o'clock, the officers of the Department of Superintendence, of the National Education Association, and of the Associated Exhibitors officially reviewed the exhibits which were housed in the lower level of the Municipal Auditorium. The reviewing party which consisted of thirty-four members visited every part of the exhibit in which 146 firms and organizations were represented. The Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education and the Minneapolis Public Schools also had notable exhibits.

February 26

The opening vesper service was held in the beautiful Northrop Auditorium of the University of Minnesota on Sunday afternoon, February 26, at four o'clock.

February 27

After the convention was called to order Monday morning, Carroll R. Reed, Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota, presented a gavel to President Milton C. Potter. The gavel was made by boys of the Minneapolis Public Schools from wood taken from the stump of an oak tree which stood at a point where a bloody Indian uprising originated. President Potter announced that the general theme of the convention was "New Frontiers for American Life."

February 28

Superintendent A. J. Stoddard of Providence, R. I. presented the final report of the Commission which prepared the 1933 Yearbook entitled *Educational Leadership*. President Milton C. Potter announced the appointment of a Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education and introduced Chairman John K. Norton of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. to present the report of the Commission's progress and plans.

Superintendent Frank W. Ballou of Washington, D. C. presented the report of the Committee on Financing Educational Research which was approved and ordered printed.

Assistant State Commissioner of Education John A. Spargo of Trenton, N. J. presented the report of the Committee on Audit which was accepted and ordered printed.

Superintendent Charles S. Meek of Toledo, Ohio submitted the report of the Committee on Lay Relations which, on motion, was approved and adopted.

Nominations for officers were made as follows: For president, Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana; for second vice-

president, David E. Weglein, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.; for member of the Executive Committee for four years, A. J. Stoddard, Superintendent of Schools, Providence, R. I., David J. Malcolm, Superintendent of North Berkshire School Union, Charlemont, Mass., and Charles S. Meek, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio. Mr. Stoddard asked that his name be withdrawn as a candidate and it was so ordered.

At the evening session President Milton C. Potter in behalf of the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence presented a certificate of honorary life membership in the Department of Superintendence to Ellwood P. Cubberley of Stanford University, California. President Potter stated that this action was taken in recognition of Dr. Cubberley's pioneer work in educational administration and his distinguished contributions to American education. On account of illness, Dr. Cubberley was unable to be present. He was represented by Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver.

March 2

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was presented by Superintendent Henry J. Gerling of St. Louis, Missouri and, on motion, was unanimously adopted. Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, Secretary-General of the World Federation of Education Associations offered from the floor a resolution which was amended and then adopted. It read as follows:

We confirm our faith in such old-time educational virtues as seriousness and hard work. We retain our confidence in, and appreciate the work of those public-spirited men and women who serve without pay on our educational boards. We believe that the men and women in our legislative bodies who are charged with grave responsibility at this time are giving earnest and sympathetic consideration to the welfare of the children and that they recognize in them our country's greatest asset, and that their welfare is paramount to all other interests.

Superintendent S. T. Neveln of Austin, Minnesota presented the report of the Board of Tellers which was as follows:

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TELLERS

MINNEAPOLIS CONVENTION

March 1, 1933.

To the President, Executive Committee, and Members of the Department of Superintendence:

We hereby certify that the election of officers of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association was held this day and conducted in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and bylaws.

The following received a majority of the votes cast and were elected:

President for one year—

Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana

Second vicepresident for one year—

David E. Weglein, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland

Member of the Executive Committee for four years—

Charles S. Meek, Superintendent of Schools, Toledo, Ohio

The retiring president, Milton C. Potter, Superintendent of Schools, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, by provision of the Constitution automatically becomes first vicepresident for the ensuing year.

Respectfully submitted,
GLENN O. SWING
J. H. SMITH
L. A. BUDAHN
E. W. IRELAND
J. G. MOORE
J. H. CLEMENT
BENJ. J. ROHAN
S. T. NEVELN

Superintendent Charles B. Glenn of Birmingham, Alabama, presented to Superintendent Potter a past president's key similar to those which have been awarded to other former presidents of the Department of Superintendence. The convention then adjourned.

S. D. SHANKLAND,
Executive Secretary.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMISSION ON THE EMERGENCY IN EDUCATION

JOHN K. NORTON, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y., *Chairman*

Early in January the officers of the National Education Association and of the Department of Superintendence appointed a Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. The Commission met promptly, quickly appraised the current educational situation, and outlined a program, which was immediately put into action with the cooperation of the headquarters staff of the Department and of the National Education Association.

We are ready to report some of the things which have been done to date, and to indicate certain plans for the immediate future.

The situation created by the depression has confronted the schools with a variety of difficult problems. These have been aggravated by the disposition of certain shortsighted and selfish interests to use the depression as a cloak for an attack upon our system of free public schools. We recognize the present situation as a serious emergency, which calls for emergency action.

Accordingly the Commission has organized as a board of strategy. It will serve as a rallying point for the forces made up of teachers, parents, and public-spirited citizens interested in the maintenance and improvement of America's system of free public schools. The Commission is organizing so as to be able to exert the full force of the million members of the teaching profession, and of the many millions of parents and citizens interested in preserving the idea of free public education, and of making that idea increasingly articulate in improved schools and colleges. It will not shrink from taking the offensive, in cases where that seems the thing to do. It will not forget that it is representing a profession. It will not hesitate to use practical methods to make the influence of the profession felt. We have been meek long

enough. The time has come to go out against those who, because of selfishness or ignorance, or both, would make children the victims of the depression.

The Commission is taking the initiative in dealing with certain educational problems of common concern to all, which can be most effectively dealt with on a national basis. It recognizes clearly, however, that its program will be most influential and helpful if it works in close cooperation with, and thru, the school systems and educational organizations of the various states and localities. It will profit from the effective work which is already being done by these agencies, will seek to pool their experience, and to develop plans for united action.

We will call upon those in all ranks of the profession for advice and counsel as we proceed. We will need their aggressive support and will expect to have it in carrying out action decided upon.

There is sufficient time to permit a few indications of the program which has already been outlined and part of which has already been put into action.

It was decided that instead of shrinking from the attacks which are being made upon public education, we should meet its challengers on their own grounds. Accordingly a project is being organized whereby the public in general will be encouraged to give answers to the questions which are being raised concerning the purposes and scope of public education. For example, do the parents of this nation want, or do they not want, free public high schools? Does the principle still hold that every child shall be provided the particular opportunities which are required in order that he may develop such talent as he may possess? We will seek mandates from the rank and file of parents and of citizens on questions such as these.

This project is based on the principle that, if the purposes, scope, and procedures of public education are sound, they will bear scrutiny even in a time of depression, and that such scrutiny will strengthen the position of the schools. If the purposes, scope, and procedures of public schools are not sound, then the sooner it is known, the better.

Already material has been prepared and plans for this campaign of educational appraisal have been outlined. You and others in the field will hear about them soon.

In another project, we are seeking to gain an accurate appraisal of the methods which are being used by the schools in dealing with the difficulties which have resulted from the depression. A collection of bulletins and publicity materials issued by schools with depression problems in mind have been assembled from all over the nation. Many of these are now available for your inspection in booths A-1 to A-29, near the registration desk in this auditorium. If you have not seen these materials, inspect them before you leave. They will give you ideas for use at home. Extra copies of some of the outstanding publications are available for distribution.

A careful tabulation of all letters received, in response to President Potter's recent communication to members of the Department has been made. Many thoughtful suggestions came in. We appreciate this cooperation and wish you to continue it as the work of the Commission progresses.

A survey has been made of the national organizations, publications and other agencies which are exercising influence, or which might exercise influence, on the development of education. We expect to know more accurately who is for, and who is against, free public education, and why. We will use the information gained on these questions.

We are greatly encouraged to discover how many groups are ready and anxious to fight for the American and opposed to the European idea of what a school system should be. We are interested in what we are beginning to find out as to the sources of the propaganda which is now appearing against education.

We are giving particular attention to the matter of educational publicity. Many states and localities are now doing excellent work in this field, as the exhibit already mentioned clearly reveals. But there are some places where the contact of the school with the public needs to be placed on a more effective basis. We are now developing and will widely disseminate material designed to assist in bringing this about in all areas—local, state and national.

The Commission is immediately seeking the advice, aid, and aggressive support of all organized groups of the profession. We have developed plans to get in closer touch with many of our national and state organizations thru a series of regional conferences, to which the executive heads of these organizations will be invited. Thru these regional conferences we plan to reach the state commissioners of education, the officers of state educational associations, the presidents of all the departments of the National Education Association, and the officers of numerous other societies, committees, and commissions. We are also planning to ask the members of the executive committee of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. to participate in one or more of these regional conferences.

At these conferences the program of our Commission for the defense of public education will be presented. An occasion will be given for the presentation of problems and plans of state and national groups. Our Commission hopes to serve as a coordinating committee for the efforts of various professional bodies.

It is anticipated that the discussions in these regional conferences will tend to strengthen the determination of the leaders to make a vigorous defense of the educational rights of children.

May we urge that our professional organizations stand ready to pay the expense of the attendance of their officers at these regional conferences. We do not have the financial resources to bear such expense.

Thru conferences with professional and lay groups, our Commission hopes to build within the next few months a powerful organization committed to the patriotic and unselfish task of saving the schools and protecting the educational interests of growing children. In such an undertaking we anticipate the enthusiastic support of millions of teachers, parents, and other patriotic citizens, and the active opposition of certain selfish groups who are willing to place their financial interests above those of the great mass of American citizens.

We believe that there should be no question anywhere as to what is the spirit of the teaching profession at this time. A serious emergency confronts the whole nation. Millions are out of work. What is the duty of teachers in such a period?

In such a time it is the duty of teachers and all public servants to reduce public expenditures to the lowest possible cost consistent with the maintenance of essential services. This is being done by the schools. Non-essentials have been eliminated. Rigid economy is being practised. The size of classes has been increased. Salaries have been lowered. In some communities even essential parts of the school have been discontinued. Terms have been shortened. In some sections the schools have been closed.

In a number of communities the depression is creating a situation where the members of our profession must choose between depriving the pupils of essential educational services or of making heavy sacrifices of our time, energy, and personal resources.

When it becomes clear in any community that these are the only alternatives, but one choice is possible for our profession. We would prefer to make personal sacrifices rather than to have children denied their educational birthright. It is this loyalty to children that has won for teachers in many communities the admiration of parents and that has paved the way for effective cooperation in the defense of the schools.

Health service, kindergartens, libraries, night schools, and other indispensable educational offerings must be maintained. The integrity of the public school must be guaranteed at any cost. This is of first importance if the morale of parents is to be maintained during this difficult period and if the children of the nation are to be prepared to meet the problems that lie ahead.

The schools, in common with other institutions, such as the home, the church, government, and private business and industrial enterprises, are being severely criticized. What response should teachers make to these criticisms?

In a period such as the present, it is not remarkable that people should be asking what is wrong. It is of the greatest importance that teachers should turn an attentive, even tho a discriminating, ear to the criticisms which are being made of education. It is true that some of it is purely destructive. It seeks merely to beat down school costs so that taxes may be reduced. But there is more to it than this. There are thoughtful people who look at the school and see places where it can be improved. Shall we resent their criticisms or profit from them? The latter is the more intelligent course. The teachers of the nation cannot wisely disclaim all responsibility for the evils which now beset the nation. To do so would be to proclaim that the school is a futile organization.

But this is not all there is to it. It is becoming increasingly clear that the schools alone cannot bring about the improvements which are called for in American economic, political and social life.

Industrial organization creates great cities with congested streets and crowded slums. But it is slow to provide public playgrounds, auditoriums

and other facilities essential to sound education and to healthful life and recreation in a great city. Business men expend billions in advertising—a most effective form of education. What motives in human nature does advertising select and prey upon? The home, even when qualified to undertake many of the most crucial parts of a child's education, too often passes the responsibility over to the school. How many churches are still lost in narrow distinctions of creed, while they only glimpse the vital contributions which they might make to the larger spiritual and social welfare of their communities. In short, society too frequently parks its social responsibility at the school door, and then goes away and forgets all about it.

Not only the school but all institutions and agencies which actually educate children and adults must feel some responsibility for education, if the results of the mal-education which now afflict our nation are to be eliminated. A better educated people can result not merely by providing a more dynamic school. Every factor which is actually educating must accept responsibility along with the school for the educational results which are obtained.

The teachers of the nation stand ready as loyal citizens to make every personal sacrifice necessary to protect children from the effects of the depression. But they cannot join in the defeatist attitude which accepts the current conditions as either necessary or permanent.

The nation contains within its borders everything necessary for a high standard of living for all. We inhabit the richest region on the globe, our people are not excelled either in willingness to work, or in the intelligence they bring to their work. We have outrun all nations in the development of machines and other means of production and distribution. Our resources include every essential to the maintenance of the American standard of living, including educational opportunities for all children, regardless of whether their parents are wealthy or poor. Our present unhappy situation is not due to a lack of resources. It comes from a failure to use these resources.

We call upon those who sit in the key places of business and financial control to spend less time and money in subsidizing economy leagues and so-called taxpayers' organizations, which indiscriminately strike at every public service, including the schools which the people have created to educate their children. The fact which should absorb the attention of these leaders is that their shortsighted and, in some instances, selfish and dishonest management is one of the prime causes which has reduced the yearly income of the American people from ninety to forty-five billion dollars. It is this forty-five billions of lost income which lies back of the difficulties of the present period. Restore this lost income and it will be easy for the American people to pay the two billion dollars a year which the public schools cost.

The teachers stand ready to join with industrial, financial, and political leaders, and with all other groups, in carrying forward any sound program for economic reconstruction. They will oppose with every resource at their command, both as citizens and as teachers, the effort of any selfish group to create a peasant class in the United States. Peasant standards are not neces-

sary in our country either in educating children or in other areas of life. Teachers will stand four-square with parents and with all intelligent citizens of the nation to fight the imposition of such standards upon the American people.

REPORT OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

WASHINGTON, D. C., JANUARY 20, 1933

Superintendent Milton C. Potter
President, Department of Superintendence
Milwaukee, Wisconsin

DEAR SIR:

The undersigned committee, appointed to audit the accounts of the Department of Superintendence for the year 1932, reports as follows:

1. The audit covered the examination of receipts and expenditures in the general fund and in the permanent fund, and an examination of the membership records of the Department, which memberships form the basis for a considerable portion of the receipts. This examination included the vouchers for expenses, the bank deposit records, the checks and stubs, and a comparison of the records of the Department with the books of the National Education Association. The last item was included because, according to the constitution, the National Education Association acts as custodian of the funds of the Department of Superintendence. In the general fund, the total receipts were \$47,361.78 which, together with the balance on hand January 1, 1932 of \$12,897.15, makes a grand total of \$60,258.93. The total expenditures for the year amounted to \$43,601.32, leaving a balance December 31, 1932, of \$16,657.61, indicating a gain of \$3,760.46 over the balance on hand December 31, 1931. In the permanent fund the income was \$2,009.79 which added to the balance of \$13,797.73 on hand January 1, 1932, makes a total of \$15,807.52. There were no expenditures, leaving the balance on hand as indicated. The permanent fund now consists of securities amounting to \$13,781.97 and cash \$2,025.55. The securities in the permanent fund were not examined by the Auditing Committee, but the audit had before it a certified statement of the securities held by the trustee of the fund, the Commercial National Bank of Washington. The physical examination of this property is made by the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association and by the expert accountants appointed to audit the books of the Association.

2. This audit covers the transactions of the calendar year 1932, and the receipts of the month of December, 1931, but not those of December, 1932. Under the constitution of the Department, December receipts are not credited on the books of the National Education Association until January.

3. The committee finds the books and records of the Department to be complete and accurate. This condition added to the fine spirit of efficiency,

courtesy, and helpfulness of the executive secretary and his force, made a pleasure out of what would ordinarily be a tedious task. On account of the interlocking relations between the Department of Superintendence and the National Education Association, continuous reference to the Association's accounts is necessary during the audit.

Respectfully submitted,

F. M. LONGANECKER, *Chairman*
LOUIS NUSBAUM.
JOHN A. SPARGO.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON FINANCING EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

FRANK W. BALLOU, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Some years ago this Department, by formal vote, established a Committee on Financing Educational Research. That committee organized a campaign for the raising of a fund of \$1,000,000, the income of which was to be devoted to the study of various problems of school administration with which this Department is primarily concerned.

Before that program of raising the money had been completely put into operation, the financial situation developed which made it necessary for the committee to postpone any further attempt to raise the money necessary for carrying on this work.

The committee reported last year, in a written report, outlining the status of the fund which had been raised up-to-date. That committee now consists of the speaker, as the spokesman for the committee on this occasion, Mr. Hodge of New York, Dr. Judd of Chicago, Mr. Cauthorn of Texas, Mr. Studebaker of Iowa, and Mr. Withers of New York University.

The committee has not held a meeting during the past year. It was agreed a year ago that we should not undertake to push the plans for the raising of this fund until the situation was more favorable. I am, therefore, presenting to you this brief statement of the status of this fund in order that the matter may be kept before you and in order that you may have this information.

A year ago, on January 1, 1932, this fund amounted to \$13,795. There has been added to that fund during the past year the following sums: \$365 from life members; \$745 in interest; and \$900 in contributions from various parent-teachers' associations, citizens' associations, and other organizations interested in the schools. The total amount in the fund on December 31, 1932, was, therefore, \$15,807.

Of that amount, the Trustees of the National Education Association, who are charged with the responsibility of investing this fund, have invested \$13,772 and there is a cash balance on hand in that fund today of \$2,025.

This fund was intended to be a fund which should be a permanent fund and only the income from this fund should be used for the promotion of educational research.

There is one aspect of this program of raising money which has not been analyzed for your information, to which I should like to refer this morning. In addition to the efforts to obtain money in the form of contributions from superintendents, there was developed a plan of life insurance which has been worked out, and from that source there have been taken out by superintendents of schools forty ten-year insurance policies amounting, on their face value, to \$10,000. When those policies mature they will be paid into that fund, so that the fund will be increased by that amount. I am pleased to report to you that all of the premiums on those policies have been regularly paid to date.

This is, as I stated in the beginning, only a very brief and more or less informal report of the status of this fund. I desire to endorse the statement made by the President with respect to the desirability of your subscribing to the educational research service which will be the means not only of providing you with additional information about administrative problems with which we are all concerned, but it will also be a valuable means and the largest means, may I say, of providing for carrying on the research work which it will be necessary to carry on the work of the Joint Commission on Emergency in Education. This report is respectfully submitted.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LAY RELATIONS

ADOPTED FEBRUARY 28, 1933

Practically every local community, every state in the Union, as well as the federal government is facing a financial crisis such as only a few short years ago would have been considered unbelievable. The national income has shrunk about 50 percent since 1929. Millions are out of employment and are becoming increasingly dependent on relief agencies supported by taxation. Reserves built up during prosperous times are melting away and the payment of taxes is becoming more difficult and in some cases impossible. All governmental agencies supported by income from taxation, therefore, must reduce the expense of operation. We, in the schools, must assume our fair share of this obligation. The postponement of building construction, the increase of pupil load per teacher with its inevitable decrease in the number of teaching positions, cannot be avoided. The only platform on which we can honestly and intelligently stand is that of rigid economy.

But we also represent the interests of children and we must remember that a neglected educational opportunity in the life of a child is a permanent and irreparable loss. We, therefore, must fearlessly resist the thoughtless and often vindictive assaults upon school expenditures which, if successful, would permanently impair the morale of the coming generation and endanger our institutions of government and society.

It appears that there is now an organized attempt by certain vested interests to cripple the public-school system of America.

This attack is the more insidious because by its subtle propaganda it enlists thousands of harassed taxpayers in leagues militantly organized and committed to the task of betraying the best interests of their own children.

Tremendous pressure is being exerted for the elimination of the so-called "fads and frills," which in reality constitute the fundamentals of twentieth-century education. Those who direct this campaign, far removed from the front line of attack, desire to force the schools back into the type of institution which they attended in their own school days and which has produced the misguided leadership responsible in part at least for our present tragic plight.

Education has little political influence since it has no patronage to bestow. Positions and promotions awarded according to merit afford no opportunity for political entrenchment. But education is now in savage competition with politically entrenched types of governmental service for its share of the shrinking tax dollar. The public schools in their organization and in the temperament and experience of their administrators are inadequately equipped for this type of combat. School revenues, therefore, yield most easily to the assaults of taxpayers' leagues.

Tho the financial support of the schools has disproportionately diminished, their responsibilities have enormously increased. The construction of school buildings, postponed during the war, was abnormally accelerated in the years following its conclusion. Millions of children, whom this machine age has forced out of industrial employment, have crowded into the upper and more expensive levels of instruction. While a quarter of a century ago only 10 percent of the children of our nation entered the high schools, more than six out of ten of them are now demanding instruction there.

This influx of students has in turn forced a large expansion of the curriculum and activities of the high school. While a single college preparatory course, which was the vogue at that time, had sufficed for the highly selected 10 percent, the wide range of abilities and needs of practically all the children of all the people require a broadly diversified curriculum.

The housing and the equipment for these newer activities adapted to the instruction of this new host of young people have added immensely to the cost of education. The public schools now confront an almost impossible dilemma. The demand for increased service since 1929 has been enormous. Revenue for operation during the same period has decreased more than 25 percent.

If we believe that education is the only hope of an enduring democracy, we dare not permit public schools to default. If we believe that education is not the prerogative of the rich but the birthright of every American child, we can no more deny him that right than we can permit him to starve. If we believe that education is essential to happy and effective living and to a representative government of the republic, we dare not balance our budgets by promoting illiteracy.

There are thousands of school districts thruout the United States, enrolling hundreds of thousands of American boys and girls, which upon the basis

of the present general property tax are unable to raise enough money to maintain an American program of education. In many of these areas essential school services have been dropped. In many of them schools have been closed. The states must revise their revenue systems in such a manner as shall provide adequate support for education thruout their borders. In no other manner can educational opportunities be equalized.

In the current emergency the federal government should do its share. What will it profit the nation if we maintain the credit of industrial corporations and deny education to American children? The very nature of our economic system which has brought about the concentration of wealth and income in our great centers of industry and finance, demands the consideration of federal support for education as a matter of simple justice and equity.

The fight for free schools for all the children is far from won. Education now calls upon laymen for support. Organized attack must be met by organized defense. All citizens interested in safeguarding American childhood and American institutions must now mobilize for action.

CHAS. S. MEEK, *Chairman*

NICHOLAS BAUER.

ALBERT S. COOK.

LOUIS BENEZET.

W. H. PILLSBURY.

REPORT OF THE RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

ADOPTED MARCH 2, 1933

Met at a time of economic depression, inclusive in its ramifications and disabling in its incidence, the Department of Superintendence, inspired by its faith in the vision and the will of our people, welcomes, in convention assembled, the opportunity of expressing its union with all likeminded citizens and organizations in the purpose of safeguarding our educational patrimony, and also, thru rededicated loyalty to our schools, of investing it anew with the dignity of social stabilization and of human enlightenment.

We, therefore, resolve:

1. In a republic equal educational opportunity must be available to all as the essential safeguard of democracy as well as the inherent right of every individual. This principle is being so seriously attacked today that the American people should rise to an active protection of the schools. Together we need to join in vigorous insistence that this generation of children shall not be deprived of its only chance and that the culture and civilization which we have inherited and which we have developed shall not be impaired nor destroyed.

2. As the complexity of modern life has increased, the unequal distribution of wealth has been accentuated, leaving some communities much less able than others to provide an adequate educational program. Therefore we recommend a revision of our taxation system, a widening of the tax unit, a substantial increase in the proportion of educational expenditures borne

by the state and by the federal government with such adjustments in such manner as to equalize educational opportunities thruout the state. This revision should provide for an equitable distribution of the burden to be borne by all citizens and should not interfere with the initiative of local communities in their efforts to support good schools.

3. We affirm the belief that just and equitable taxes based on ability to pay form the most satisfactory means of financing public works of which education is one of the most important.

4. We recommend that the necessary legislation be enacted by the Congress of the United States to authorize loans for educational purposes to states and localities by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation.

5. The present crisis bears impressive testimony to the fact that greater emphasis should be placed on the social studies in the courses recommended for the educational development of teachers in service and in the curriculums of colleges, teacher-training institutions and of secondary and elementary schools. It calls also for the encouragement of all thoughtful persons to carry forward their education by such use as is possible of the schools, libraries, and other educational facilities which society offers and our educational institutions maintain.

6. To carry out this obligation calls for a national council on social-economic planning as forecast by the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, and as cogently urged by the educators who memorialized the President-elect of the United States urging him to establish such a council.

7. When established such a national council should be fully representative of our total social life, including agriculture, labor, industrial management, medicine, engineering, law, education, welfare. It should be constituted in such a way as to give assurance that everything that is done may be directed with an intelligent understanding of the larger social issues involved. Inasmuch as such a national council will serve inevitably as a powerful educative agency in the formation of public opinion, it should have all the safeguards which the other educative agencies have. Such a council we respectfully petition the President of the United States, in cooperation with the Congress, to bring into existence at the earliest possible time. This Department of Superintendence recommends to the Executive Committee that they appoint a committee to aid in securing the passage of the legislation necessary to establish such a council.

8. Among the probable and desirable steps likely to be taken in the reorganization of the federal government, departments and agencies having to do with education should undoubtedly be coordinated and unified. To this end, we respectfully call to the attention of the President of the United States the report of the National Advisory Committee on Education with its significant data and recommendations. At the same time we commend most highly the present United States Office of Education and the recent advancement in its more efficient organization and management.

9. We commend the towns and cities which have so developed their secondary schools and vocational classes that vital courses are offered which have held in school training millions of boys and girls who otherwise would be unemployed. We are disturbed that a great number of boys have left home in an aimless search for employment and we praise the interest of Congress in the tragic fate of these young men. If by Congressional action this group should come under the protection and care of the government, we urge the necessity that the program of activities arranged shall, except for housing and feeding, be intrusted to the national Office of Education.

10. We express our sincere gratitude to all faithful and friendly cooperating agencies which are striving to safeguard our public schools, and especially do we commend the forward looking program in support of public education set forth by the American Federation of Labor in its recent pronouncement at the Cincinnati meeting.

11. As social-economic problems today are worldwide, they must be solved on a worldwide basis. We therefore commend the program of the American and British delegations to the Disarmament Conference on the subject of Moral Disarmament. We heartily agree with them that the principles of pacific settlement of international disputes and of the renunciation of war as an instrument of national policy should be included in preparations for all governmental positions which may involve relations with other countries.

12. To President Herbert Hoover we are indebted for the recent conference on the Crisis in Education. Its recommendations together with the findings of the National Survey of Schools, authorized by Congress in 1931, constitute an informing and steadying influence of great service to the schools.

13. We recognize the inevitability of the schools sharing in the effects of the depression and the resultant need for the strictest economy. However, we deplore the apparent desire in some quarters to penalize the schools in comparison with other governmental functions. Every possible item of waste should be eliminated, but no indiscriminating sacrifices should be imposed.

EXPRESSIONS OF APPRECIATION

The initiative and energetic action of President Joseph Rosier of the National Education Association and of President Milton C. Potter of the Department of Superintendence in setting to work a Joint Emergency Steering Committee has our cordial and grateful approval. It is welcomed as a measure for the formulation and execution of emergency plans of action, and for the presentation of principles and procedures thru which leadership effective on the new educational frontiers may be developed.

We desire also to express our thanks to Station WLB of Minneapolis for the use of its broadcasting facilities, to the National Broadcasting Company and to the Columbia Network for their effective cooperation, and to the local and national press for the intelligent and sympathetic publicity given to the proceedings of the convention.

To Superintendent Carroll R. Reed, his staff and his local committees, to the Board of Education and to the people of Minneapolis, we express our deep appreciation of their cordial welcome and their gracious hospitality which has found expression not only in many individual courtesies but in tasteful floral decorations and beautiful musical programs.

HENRY J. GERLING, *Chairman*,
FREDERICK ARCHER,
W. W. BORDEN,
GEORGE C. BUSH,
E. W. BUTTERFIELD,
JOHN CALLAHAN,
KATHERINE HAMILTON,
E. E. OBERHOLTZER,
ORVILLE C. PRATT,
BELLE M. RYAN.

The following resolution was presented from the floor and adopted by the convention:

We confirm our faith in such old-time educational virtues as seriousness and hard work. We retain our confidence in, and appreciate the work of those public-spirited men and women who serve without pay on our educational boards. We believe that the men and women in our legislative bodies who are charged with grave responsibility at this time are giving earnest and sympathetic consideration to the welfare of the children and that they recognize in them our country's greatest asset, and that their welfare is paramount to all other interests.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION was created by the Board of Directors at its meeting in Minneapolis, July 4, 1928. The Board of Directors took the following action as shown by its minutes: President Adair informed the Board of Directors that requests had been made for a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; that the necessity for such a department had been substantiated by much data; and that the Department had complied with all the necessary rules for its creation. Mr. Rogers moved that a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction be created. The motion was seconded and carried. It was then declared that the new department had been duly created.

The officers for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Mildred English, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Raleigh, N. C., *First Vicepresident*, Leonard Power, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Okla.; *Second Vicepresident*, Helen M. Reynolds, Director of Kindergarten-Primary Grades, Board of Education, Seattle, Wash.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, James F. Hosis, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; *Executive Committee*: the officers of the Department, ex-officio; Elizabeth Hall, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, 305 City Hall, Minneapolis, Minn.; Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa; J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education, State Education Department, Albany, N. Y.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of its meetings may be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1928:831-832 1929:803-825 1930:773-800 1931:801-824 1932:679-693

WHO ADMINISTERS OUR SCHOOLS?

GUY STANTON FORD, DEAN, GRADUATE COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA,
MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Democracy and its greatest American creation, a free public-school system, are linked today in the great adventure of preserving themselves and the worthiest of our national ideals under conditions that will apply new standards of social utility to institutions and ideals that we have held sacred and permanent. I state not my own view but the growing conviction of every thoughtful observer that the leadership and control of the schools in the future will call for a broader training and a new conception of what is involved in school administration.

Have we achieved this broader conception of the task that faces our successors? Are we giving their professional training the essential background? Have we set this professional training, either preliminary or advanced, in a living matrix of the disciplines whose discoveries and their application are creating and reshaping all social instrumentalities? On the basis of my experience in public service and on educational commissions and my observation as an educator whose duties force him to take panoramic views of all fields of specialized training, I am forced reluctantly to answer in the negative. When I have seen the apparently narrowest specialties breaking down all lines and synthesizing and fusing all contributing fields in order to solve their problems, I have seen the greatest and broadest of all human professions, that of teaching, narrowing its preparation and becoming more professional by the complacent means of reiterating in a multiplicity of courses stretched thru four years what could be and often was mastered in the first approach.

The first unfavorable situation that needs to be cleared up is one that prevails most often within the organization of many of the large and complex universities. In some cases it may be briefly characterized as a state of internecine warfare between the college or school or department of education on the one hand and the other educational units, chiefly the liberal arts college, on the other. Arts colleges in the last thirty years have protected their virtue by giving birth to children which they at once proclaimed as illegitimate. But the children still live on the old homestead—a whole brood of schools of journalism, business, education, social work, music, and the fine arts. Education in most cases was the first one pushed out of the nest. It has suffered most from the alienation and on its own part has increased its difficulties by over-compensation for an early inferiority complex. The ensuing isolation and want of stimulating association with the whole guild of scholarship have had disastrous effects upon all parties. Everywhere there are indications that universities are waking up to the fact that the training of teachers is a task so large and so important that it requires all the resources and cooperative effort of the whole university.

The second stumbling block is the poverty and inadequacy in staff and resources of many of the independent four-year colleges that have been forced

by competition for students to enter the ranks of teacher training. When they add education to their curriculum they seldom enlarge their staff but are forced to put the legal minimum of courses in the hands of someone whose equipment has more gaps than the teaching schedule he is now forced to carry. If the depression wiped out this type of institution and left the strong and well-equipped liberal arts colleges to do their work, it could be credited with some contribution to the raising of educational standards.

The third difficulty arises out of our multiplication of state-supported normal schools now changed by legislative fiat into four-year degree-granting colleges. The fact that most states had about twice as many of them as they needed or could adequately support even when they restricted themselves to their original important function is no fault of any school man or school administrator. Their unnecessary number is the product of localism and log-rolling quite regardless of any sound educational policy. Their assumption of another role without such consolidation and elimination as would give them the resources to play the role has confused standards and added immensely not only to their own problems but to the difficulty of raising the standards for educational leadership.

The fourth difficulty touches matters of public policy. It arises from the want of standards and discrimination in the public officials who determine and administer the standards of admission to the profession. Minimum standards have been too low, too lax, and too formal. There are still states where a blanket state certificate permits a major in music or physical education or chemistry to teach the social studies, which are and must be at the very heart of the training for citizenship in a changing world. The old excuse that there were not teachers enough can no longer justify the persistence of weak institutions or the indiscriminate admission of the poorly prepared, no matter what institution they come from. Overproduction for a declining market is the price the teaching profession is paying today for the want of courage and foresight upon the part of those who represent education in the governments of many states. Economics and the evolution of higher standards among the profession itself are the best assurances that the state administrators will ultimately fall into line.

What public-school administrators have done in the last twenty-five years of tremendous expansion in school population and expenditures leaves a balance in their favor. I have not been assessing them nor their work. That task may be left to the historian. My interest is in the future. My hope is that if twenty-five years from now some speaker asks who has administered our schools the answer will be: a group of men and women whose devotion upheld the best traditions of the profession, whose training was so rich and fruitful, whose social perception was so keen and sure that the generation they trained has come safely thru the nation's period of greatest stress and strain.

TEACHING INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

PAUL MONROE, DIRECTOR, INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.; AND PRESIDENT,
ROBERT COLLEGE, ISTANBUL, TURKEY

I shall confine myself to one specific aspect of the question, namely, "What are some of the specific principles involved in the teaching of international relations in our public schools?"

Pedagogical principles—The same general pedagogical principles hold that operate in success or failure in teaching other subjects. In other words, our subject does not call for a new pedagogy or for a new pedagogical approach. It calls primarily for the organization and presentation of new subjectmatter in ways that will conform to the principles of successful teaching as such principles have been worked out with reference to other subjects. The organization of the material has not yet been subject to the test of experience. It must surely depend upon generalizations deduced from other experiences. Should we attempt to formulate principles peculiarly applicable to this new subjectmatter, it is probable that we should draw inferences from similar experience which has been had with reference to the teaching in higher aspects of education. Furthermore, it is probable that the subject of international relations should not appear as a separate curriculum subject but that for the most part and in most schools it should appear merely as new material in already established subjects, such as civics or geography.

Functioning of machinery—There are many organizations that exist to further the study of machinery of international peace and of international relations. I myself belong to several of these, to some of them as director; yet I must admit that most of them commit this error of belief in the efficacy of the study of social machinery. Some are concerned with furnishing information of a political character and thus indirectly contributing either to the study of machinery or of functioning, but the teacher is always prone to seize that which is more exact and direct and the school authorities as well as the public are interested in avoiding the consideration of controversial problems. Nevertheless, it is only by the study of these problems which are in controversy that we shall ever get the pupils to understand and to take the proper interest in the subject of international relations.

There are enough concrete problems that have passed thru the various parts of the machinery of the League or of the Court which could be studied and which would give the students insight into some of the complicated problems of the day, would give to many a thoro understanding of the way in which international conflicts of interest and of policies arise, how they might be studied, even how they might be resolved; and what is the procedure that has been followed in certain specific cases and what have been the decisions reached. By such a knowledge, by such a study, the pupil obtains indirectly knowledge of the structure or of the machinery of these institutions. Furthermore, he gains the impression that the machinery is

not an end in itself at all but merely means or machinery; and that even yet this machinery is in many instances quite inadequate.

Attitudes—A most important aspect of the teaching of international relations in the schools is the development of attitudes of interest, particularly toward the problem of peace. The old histories sinned not so much in the fact that they gave the greater part of their space to the consideration of wars as in developing the attitude upon the part of the pupil that wars contained the only element of interest in the life of the past or in the story of nations. Our problem as educators, I believe, is to so arrange and so present the materials concerning the peaceful solutions of the conflicts of international interests that the attitude of interest upon the part of the pupil will be developed as it was in the past by the accounts of war.

Most important with reference to this development of attitudes is the recent action taken by the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations recommending that effort be made, thru the introduction of materials in the schools, to promote moral disarmament or, as it is sometimes termed, "intellectual disarmament." This recommendation involves three of the points which I have been making: (1) this one regarding the importance of attitudes; (2) the preceding one that the study of functions is far more important than the study of structure; and (3) the second one concerning the introduction of new material into old subjects.

Substitution of new materials for old—The change that has come about in American attitude toward England thru the change of materials in the American texts dealing with the Revolutionary War is well known. Similar changes with regard to the sectional attitudes thru the better selection of materials dealing with the Civil War are also obvious. A corresponding transition with reference to the attitude toward various nations is just as feasible. This statement applies to other countries as well as to the United States.

While there have been several studies made of the content of textbooks with reference to the materials that bear upon the hostile character of international relations, these studies are confined very largely to the content of histories. It is important to realize that the materials in the geographies, the readers, the study of literature and even of science are in many respects quite as important and that such materials are now often used for the development of hostile attitudes. Our argument here is that they may just as effectively be used for the inclusion of materials relating to peaceful international relations.

Travel—Travel both by pupils and by teachers constitutes an effective means of teaching international relations. To the people of Europe travel used as an educational means is very much more common than it is in the United States. This, of course, is due to the vast expanse of our territory, the absence of historical background, and the comparative sparsity of population. There is now quite an extensive system of the interchange of travel groups of students, even of younger students, between the various countries of Europe during the summer vacation. Some experimentation along these

lines has been tried with American students in Europe and the reverse. Personally I am of the opinion that such travel should be encouraged or tolerated with the younger pupils only when under the most rigid supervision. Even in case of students of the collegiate grade, I am under the impression that the more or less casual visitation of foreign countries is not conducive to the development of either international understanding or international respect unless it is conducted under the most careful supervision.

I think there is a great waste of opportunity of time and of funds, that we allow so much in the way of travel of mature students or of teachers, particularly of the American in Europe, to go on without making more definite effort to see that educational results along the line of better international understanding are secured.

The conference method—The conference method, particularly of the informal type, affords one of the best means of making profitable travel and similar contacts. Our professional spirit here in America has been built up in these later years largely thru the mass meeting and public address. I believe that visitation of a small group, combined with conference with a similar group of teachers of definite background of experience, is one of the most profitable methods of developing professional interest and ability as well as of promoting a better international understanding.

Training of teachers—Finally, I would emphasize the point that the training of teachers with reference to international relations is a far more important step to make now than is the question of the training of the pupil in the school. The arguments made with reference to conference, travel, attitude—all relate primarily to the teacher. Furthermore, if the teacher can be put in possession of the knowledge of the functioning of this new international machinery as it operates in many specific instances, so that these instances can be passed on to the pupils in the schools as specific problems, if the teacher can be given the opportunity to deal with new problems as they arise in a similar manner, and if all of these things can be brought into our institutions for the training of teachers, then the problem of the school for the next few years is quite solved.

EDUCATION AND OUR PRESENT SOCIAL PROBLEMS

JOHN DEWEY, PROFESSOR EMERITUS OF PHILOSOPHY, COLUMBIA
UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

The relation of education to social problems is not external and academic. It resides first of all in the community of interest of educators with all workers who are genuine producers of social necessities. This community of interest has both its negative and positive poles. Educators and others alike need protection against personal unsettlement, insecurity, overhanging disaster. Both must have guaranteed to them the effective ability to perform the services which the whole community requires. I would insist then that the first step for educators to take is the full recognition of this community of interest. Unless the start is made at this point, I fear lest the newly

aroused interest of teachers in basic social problems will operate at arm's length and, lacking leverage, will with a return of moderate prosperity grow faint.

The second step which follows naturally upon realization of community of interest is, of course, an alliance in sympathy and in action. The province and function of education are not limited to children, tho teachers as a whole have had their share in execution of this function limited to children and youth, leaving to the press and other agencies formation of the judgments and sentiments of adults. As long as educators think of their work as something apart from that of other workers and of their interests as separate, this state of affairs is practically sure to persist. The alliance of educators with others who are at a disadvantage because of the chaotic and inequitable economic order of society is, as far as I can see, the only way of changing this state of things so as to enable educators to take part in the normal education of adults.

One reason they cannot do so at present is that they are not prepared to do so, even intellectually. They share in the economic illiteracy which is so common. And much of this ignorance is due in turn to remoteness of teachers from the mass of people upon whom the disordered economic scheme weighs most heavily. Educators themselves can get the education which will enable them to help others only thru the effective realization of the community of interest of which I have been speaking. The same identification of sympathy and thought will also break down the moral barriers which now divide teachers from members of other groups and make the latter more or less suspicious of them.

A great deal is now said about the importance of social planning in order to secure the integration and coordination which our sick society so badly needs. As I read the report of the Committee on Social Trends, the trend most emphasized is that toward a condition of unbalance due to the independent and unrelated growth of the different parts of the social mechanism. And according to those who report, with scientific moderation, on the trends, the unrelated development of the economic phase, both as a whole in relation to other interests and internally in the relation of its parts to one another, is the thing chiefly responsible for the existing unbalance. Today the need for planning and coordination is, in theory at least, almost a commonplace. But it cannot be realized on paper or by means of plans on paper however perfect in theoretical principle. The problem is more than one of adjusting certain impersonal functions, like production and consumption. The human element comes in. The work has got to be done by people. It will not be done as long as people, as human beings, do not understand one another and sympathize with one another. Teachers will not have even a modest share in building a new social order unless they have broken down personal remoteness and indifference as to the things they have in common with farmers, factory workers, the white collar class generally, and have ceased to think of their interests as being separate or exclusively linked with those of purely professional groups.

The work that has to be done in the further social education of the teachers themselves in economic matters and in the work they have to do with the young cannot, in short, be properly performed except as teachers, beginning at home with their own activities and function, widen their outlook and sympathy until they come into that practical association with other workers which will create common bonds and exchange of experiences and ideas in a common practical effort. The duty to educate the young for citizenship is universally recognized in words. At present much of the work done in this line is barren because the importance of the economic factor in good citizenship does not receive attention. I do not see how it can get proper attention without that realization of community of interest and consequent alliance in sympathy and understanding for which I have been pleading.

In conclusion let me say that one of the first steps to be taken practically in effecting a closer connection of education with actual social responsibilities is for teachers to assert themselves more directly about educational affairs and about the organization and conduct of the schools—assert themselves, I mean, both in the internal conduct of the schools by introducing a greater amount of teacher responsibility in administration, and outside in relation to the public and the community. The present dictation of policies for the schools by bankers and other outside pecuniary groups is more than harmful to the cause of education. It is also a pathetic and tragic commentary on the lack of possession of social power by the teaching profession. Teachers will not do much for the general settlement of social problems (outside of the indirect influence of academic discussion) until they have asserted themselves by taking an active share in the settlement of the educational problems which most directly concern teachers in their own local communities. Beginning at home is again the lesson to be learned.

SUPERVISION OF ENGLISH TEACHING

JAMES F. HOSIC, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Authentic facts as to how the teaching of English in the elementary schools is supervised are not available. In the high schools there are many departmental "heads," but here also our information is fragmentary. There is need of a thoroughgoing survey of this field.

In the elementary schools, to which I shall confine my remarks, there are few specialists in English. Both the teaching of the subject and the supervision of that teaching are entrusted to general practitioners. This is due not to analysis but merely to custom. Specialists came in late, with the introduction of music, art, and physical education. Such persons are sorely needed in both reading and language, but their duties should be those of consultants, not inspectors.

The social crisis thru which we are passing has many implications in relation to English. For a time we shall have to endure poorer teachers, larger classes, a scarcity of materials, reactionary courses of study, heavier burdens

on those who supervise and direct. These conditions are unnecessary, but they appear to be inevitable. However, we should seize the opportunity to improve the curriculum and secure a better organization. The public expects change. Let us see to it that the movement is toward a program in which English is taught, not to please the academic collegian, but to equip the pupils for the actual needs of life. The Clapp report, the Smith Survey, Barnes's analysis, the new courses in Baltimore and Chicago may be cited as examples of what should be done.

The obligation of the school to the adults who surround it should be fully recognized and provision made for adult utilization of school facilities.

The traditional type of school organization should be given up. The most effective instruction cannot be expected of teachers who try to teach everything. The one-teacher school has persisted for a hundred years. Something better is called for. The best substitute so far offered is the Cooperative Group Plan. This consists in putting a small group of classes in the hands of a committee of teachers. The teachers divide up the work. Each has his own room, fitted up for the work he is to do. But all work is planned and carried on cooperatively. Thus the elementary school obtains the competence of the specialist without suffering from his narrowness and preoccupation with subjectmatter at the expense of childhood needs and interests.

The supervision of English is a job of human engineering. Success in it depends most of all upon ability to estimate and understand people and to lead them to work together toward worthy ends. The supervisor must first learn the needs. These will vary widely among individuals. He must organize a program for meeting the needs. How science can help him in doing this the forthcoming yearbook of this Department by Dr. Rankin and his committee will show. In the absence of any considerable body of literature dealing with the supervision of English—most writers have dealt with the teaching of the subject, not its supervision—persons who supervise English can do no better than to read attentively the entire series of yearbooks issued by the Department, as well as volumes of *Educational Method*, the leading journal of supervision.

EVIDENCE OF THE NEED OF CAPABLE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

WILLIAM S. GRAY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

The unique function of instructional leadership is the improvement of teaching. Attention will be directed to the need of instructional leadership under normal conditions, such as those that prevailed before the depression. A survey of the status of reading in more than thirty schools in 1926 revealed a series of very illuminating facts. First, the general breadth and character of the instruction given differed widely. Many schools still adhered to the narrow content and formal methods characteristic of two decades ago. Other schools had greatly improved the breadth and excellence of their teaching by

enriching the activities of the reading period by providing wide, interesting, purposeful reading in the content fields, by organizing the materials read in terms of challenging units or problems, and by providing appropriate guidance in reading in all school subjects and activities. Accompanying these differences in the kinds of instruction given were equally significant variations in the reading achievements and interests of the pupils. Some schools ranked distinctly above the norms in achievement and others ranked shockingly low. The pupils in some schools had acquired varied interests and engaged in wide diversified reading. In other schools, the pupils gave evidence of few such interests, little or no independent reading, and engaged in study activities haltingly and ineffectively.

A careful study of the conditions which accompanied these differences supplied striking evidence of the value of instructional leadership. In practically every school in which efficient teaching and satisfactory achievement were found, a capable superintendent, supervisor, or principal directed and inspired the staff. In such schools, a spirit of confidence and professional zeal prevailed. The teachers had caught a vision of the broader outcomes of teaching and exhibited keen interest in the achievements and needs of their pupils. They had adopted an inquiring attitude toward the problems which they encountered and were proceeding intelligently in their attempts to solve them. In the schools which secured unsatisfactory results, there was either little or no supervision or inadequate instructional leadership. Far too frequently, the staff was discouraged and had lost hope of improving conditions. They were in need of guidance and inspiration to help them out of the morass and to direct them to higher levels of teaching. In other cases, the teachers were not acquainted with progressive trends in teaching and were complacent with the meager results secured. The need was obvious for leadership that would cultivate an inquiring attitude, inform and inspire the staff, and provide the help necessary in reorganizing and improving teaching. In still other cases, the teachers recognized their deficiencies and were eager for help. Their supervisory officers, however, were not acquainted with recent professional literature or the results of scientific studies. They were either content to limit their activities to administrative duties or were unwilling to put forth the necessary effort to secure the professional knowledge and acquire the technics essential in constructive supervision.

The evidence referred to in this paper shows the need of capable instructional leadership. Furthermore, a vigorous supervisory policy promotes far more rapid progress in increasing the efficiency of instruction than is otherwise attained. It follows that current effort to economize by reducing unduly or by eliminating supervision is unwise and detrimental to the best interests of the pupils and of society.

These findings are especially timely in view of the fact that schools today face the need of radical readjustments in order to provide more adequately for contemporary social needs. In order to effect needed changes, certain conditions are essential, namely, trained instructional leadership, a competent and professionally-minded staff, continuous study of professional literature

and the results of related scientific studies, constructive study of teaching problems including various types of service research, and finally, adequate time for growth. The demand for continuous improvement of teaching places large responsibilities upon school officers and teachers. Only as problems are attacked enthusiastically and courageously will instruction increase in breadth and excellence.

INDISPENSABLE SERVICES IN SUPERVISION

ERNEST O. MELBY, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY,
EVANSTON, ILL.

There has never in the history of education been a greater need for supervision than now. Since the force of this need will become more evident if we take account of some of the more urgent problems facing our schools, we shall consider three of the major areas in which there is need for supervisory leadership.

First, the present period in our national development has called striking attention to the lag between the school and the social order. Generally speaking, social experimentation has lagged far behind physical experimentation. The consequent failure of modern civilization to exercise effective social controls in the face of a revolutionized industrial order is largely responsible for our present economic plight. The developments of the last few months indicate that we are passing into an era of social experimentation, the like of which our country at least has never witnessed before. Regardless of the outcomes of our various experiments the schools cannot disregard them. Some of them touch such fundamental matters as the underlying motives in life. Some of our much vaunted "rugged individualism" may have to be surrendered. I am not proposing that the teacher and the school should attempt to shape the so-called new order. I am merely saying that this new order will be built, in part at least, by those who are now in school. I believe further that the intelligence with which it will be built depends upon the extent to which we can now in our schools educate for social understanding.

Not only is there hiatus between the life of the school and social needs but there is an enormous spread between our theory and our practise. In my judgment the most important reason is the inadequate preparation of teachers. The task of putting our best theory into practise involves a thoro social understanding and an equally thoro knowledge of the child and his learning problems. For the most part our teachers possess neither of these requisites. Basically then, we are concerned with a problem of teacher education. This in-service education constitutes our one and only chance to overcome the social lag in education, as well as the lag between theory and practise.

It is inconceivable that effective in-service education can be supplied in the absence of competent supervision. Something can be accomplished by our teachers, especially those who are earnestly carrying forward their professional development. But the problems are too complex and the obstacles to be overcome are too great to make it reasonable to hope that much progress

can be made without energizing leadership. Leadership, therefore, in improving the curriculum, in improving methods of teaching, and in improving the materials of instruction, is, it seems to me, one of the indispensable services for which we must look to the supervisor.

In the second place, even if we had no material social lag in our schools, even if there were no striking gaps between our theory and our practise, supervisory leadership would still be indispensable in the maintenance of effective educational programs. As schools are now organized, the child is taught not by one person, but by many persons. His education is the work, therefore, of a great many different people. Moreover, there are in regard to his education, a wide variety of educational philosophies and a wide range of interpretations in regard to the finding of educational science. At some point, responsibility must be centered for the coordination of the activities of all of the various teachers in contact with the child.

If the supervisors and the teachers will earnestly seek to find the truth, if they will meet frequently to discuss their various problems in greatest frankness and in a spirit of mutual respect for personality, I believe that effective coordination can be secured thru the methods of conference and group thinking. The function of coordinating the activities of individual teachers is one of the indispensable services in supervision.

A third indispensable supervisory service is leadership in the solution of educational problems. No profession at the present time has more unsolved problems than ours. We need research on thousands of individual topics or problems. It is unthinkable that all of this research can come from schools of education in universities. Much of it must come from public-school systems. Our interest in such research is not limited to its results. Most forward-looking supervisors and teachers believe that experimentation on the part of teachers is one of the best methods for promoting teacher growth and for providing effective professional training. For this reason, we are justified in expecting the supervisor to assume leadership in promoting research activities within the school system. No experimental school possesses the possibilities for research that are offered by our various public schools. In these schools, teachers are every day encountering problems which are crying for solution. Motives for research activity are always present; they need only to be sensed by the teacher and given effective direction by the supervisor.

We need to experiment, but we need also to rethink the objectives of education. In this we need the stimulus of association with others who are likewise trying to clarify their educational philosophies. Thus, the supervisor who can stimulate teachers to engage in meaningful research, who can guide group thinking in the solution of problems is rendering an indispensable service.

Other opportunities for indispensable service on the part of the supervisor could be mentioned. It suffices to point out that no one can take inventory of the needs of our schools today without becoming keenly aware of the need for effective supervisory leadership. On the face of this situation we as supervisors cannot ignore certain basic facts. We know that many supervisors have

been dropped for economic reasons. We know, too, that our failure to supply the type of leadership needed has lost for us the support of large numbers of our teachers, a support we have badly needed. In addition, our position as a separate division of the administration, an appendage, has placed us in a still more vulnerable position than otherwise. An honest facing of these facts will immediately present supervisors with two major responsibilities. In the first place we must do everything in our power to provide our communities and our school authorities with the facts in regard to the need for leadership. In the second place, as supervisors, we face the responsibility for equipping ourselves for the kind of leadership which our present educational problems demand.

Unless we can acquire a concept of leadership in harmony with the science and philosophy of modern education; unless we can develop technics in stimulation in group thinking; unless we can grow in community understanding and leadership, we shall neither merit the confidence of teachers nor succeed in rendering services which are indispensable in the solution of our crucial educational problems.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis, Minnesota

The thirteenth annual meeting of the organization now known as the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association was held at Minneapolis February 28 and March 1. At the first session three speakers presented the current yearbook, entitled *Effective Instructional Leadership—A Study of the Problem of Integration*. Professor Melby of Northwestern University explained very clearly how the committee made plans for the work and how it carried out those plans. By means of two questionnaires, facts as to conditions and conflicts in some seventy cities of over 100,000 population were obtained. These were analyzed and interpreted. The committee then proceeded to set up standards of value and to define the characteristics of an administrative-supervisory organization that makes for integration. Professor Lindquist of Ohio State University, chairman of the committee, followed with an exposition of the principles on which the committee agreed. The program was closed with a critical appreciation of the report of the committee, by Superintendent Threlkeld of Denver, who gave his hearty approval to the conclusions in the report and discussed some of the practical difficulties faced by educational leaders with high ideals.

One of the largest audiences ever attracted to a Department program assembled on Wednesday, March first, to hear Dean Ford of the University of Minnesota, Dr. Monroe of Robert College and the International Institute of Teachers College, and Professor Dewey. The interest was justified. Three masterful addresses were delivered and listened to with rapt attention. Dean Ford spoke particularly of the quality of our present teacher population. President Monroe set forth the principles that should control attempts at education in internationalism. Professor Dewey answered the question, "Is there a method by which educators may set to work to help solve the social problems which have now become acute?"

At the luncheon on Tuesday Dean Edmonson, of the University of Michigan, spoke on "Obstacles to Instructional Changes in Our Secondary Schools" and Miss Kelty, of Chicago, on "The New Content of the Social Studies in the Elementary School." The smooth working of the program and the arrangements for the luncheon were due to the skillful planning of President Horn, Vicepresident Dondineau, and

Miss Elizabeth Hall, chairman of the local committee. The Minneapolis supervisors came to the annual meeting with a record of 100 percent membership.

Board of Directors and Executive Committee Meeting

The Board of Directors met at breakfast in the Hotel Leamington for its annual business session. The minutes of the previous meeting as printed in *Educational Method* for April, 1932, were approved. The financial report, including a comparative statement for 1931-1932 and 1932-1933, together with a budget for 1933-1934, was accepted. It was ordered that the incoming president be instructed to appoint a committee to audit the accounts of the Department as of July 1, 1933, and make a report to the Board of Directors. It was also ordered that the treasurer's next annual report include a comparative statement covering three years just preceding the annual meeting. The Executive Committee was invested with power to reduce expenditures if necessary to maintain the solvency of the Department. The size of the yearbook committees shall be kept down for this purpose.

The nominating committee, composed of Director Morrison, chairman, and Directors Dondineau and McClure, reported as follows: for president, Mildred English of Raleigh, North Carolina; for first vicepresident, Leonard Power of Tulsa, Oklahoma; for second vicepresident, Helen M. Reynolds of Seattle, Washington; for secretary-treasurer, James F. Hosic of New York, N. Y.; for member of the Executive Committee, Ernest Horn of Iowa City, Iowa.

The Executive Committee, whose meeting immediately followed that of the Board of Directors, voted to set up a committee to prepare a yearbook for 1935 on *Materials of Instruction*, pushing one year ahead the series of five yearbooks on supervision of the several major parts of the program of activities which was decided upon by the Executive Committee at its meeting in Atlantic City. The cooperation of other interested bodies will be sought, such as the National Council of Education, the National Society for the Study of Education, the American Library Association, the Society of Curriculum Specialists, and various subjectmatter groups. The incoming president was instructed to extend our invitation to the appropriate departments of the N. E. A. and to such subject groups as are eligible to affiliate with this Department to join in the creation of an advisory committee to assist in the production of this yearbook.

An invitation to participate in a joint meeting with Section Q of the Association for the Advancement of Science, the National Society for the Study of Education, the American Educational Research Association, and other similar bodies during the Chicago convention of the National Education Association was accepted.

It was voted that only one half-day session of the Department be arranged for the summer convention, that conflicts with the meeting time of other similar departments be avoided, and that if possible a joint meeting with the Department of Elementary School Principals be arranged.

Reorganization of the editorial board of *Educational Method* was authorized. This will reduce the size of the board and provide for a large group of correspondents.

At the regular business meeting of the Department, which followed the program on Wednesday, the following were elected to the Board of Directors on nomination of the committee named above: for a term of two years, Mildred English, Julia L. Hahn, James F. Hosic, J. Cayce Morrison, John Spargo; for a term of three years, Armand Gerson, Ernest Horn, Delia Kibbe, Robert H. Lane, Rudolph D. Lindquist.

Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home
Economics

AT THE ATLANTA meeting of the Association in 1929 the necessary petition for the formulation of a Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics was presented to the Representative Assembly and to the Executive Committee. This petition was presented by the National Conference of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics. In 1930 at the Columbus, Ohio, meeting the Department was created by formal vote. The former home economics organization has had a history rich in accomplishments. Its good work will continue as a department of the Association.

The officers for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Carlotta C. Greer, Head, Home Economics Department, John Hay High School, Cleveland, Ohio; *Vice-president*, Ada Kennedy, Head, Home Economics Department, John Muir Technical High School, Pasadena, Calif.; *Secretary*, Alice Currier, Supervisor of Home Economics, Board of Education, Pawtucket, R. I.; *Treasurer*, Mary M. Buckley, Supervisor of Home Economics, Board of Education, Paterson, N. J.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of its meetings may be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1931:825-844 1932:695-712

HOME ECONOMICS AS A VOCATION

WILLIAM J. BOGAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

In preparing for home economics as a vocation it would be well to give pre-vocational courses consisting of subjects listed under general education as a background. This background is especially necessary for any group headed for specialization in later years. Specialization must come sooner or later in the life of that pupil who wishes to adopt home economics or any of its phases as a vocation. Specialization means that unusual energy and time must be devoted to the subjects necessary in the vocational course. Most of this work will be confined to large schools in large cities where the demand from the pupils makes profitable the organization of classes and where the demand from society is sufficient to utilize the student product. There should be a variety of these courses, but in general they should develop a high degree of skill, a keen appreciation of efficiency, the theory and practise of management, including the theory and practise of economics, related technical subjects, and a broad knowledge of social demands and tendencies. Special courses should be offered for special needs. There is generally a demand for short unit evening-school courses of a highly specialized nature for women in the home who desire to remedy defects in their training or prepare for specialized duties. There is need also for courses designed for women in industry who expect to transfer to the home.

The modern tendency in vocational courses is to separate them very definitely in methods, contents, and time from courses in general education. The genuine course in vocational education will not be dominated by college requirements, tho the related subjects, at least for the advanced courses, may be quite as valuable for other than college purposes as those usually given as part of college preparatory work. The minute, however, that courses are made to suit the demands of college they lose in practical value, in industrial significance, and in the development of skill.

ART AND LEISURE

LORADO TAFT, INSTRUCTOR AND LECTURER, CHICAGO ART INSTITUTE,
CHICAGO, ILL.

The best kind of recreation consists in doing something *different* just as well as you can and taking pleasure in it. Something different from your daily work, I mean. Recreation is very valuable and very precious. Some find it in a foreign language, some in art—there are endless things that one can think of—etymology or entomology; bugs for the “bugologist,” the history of art or the history of your own neighborhood—they are valuable and help a man to understand other men and to sympathize. They brighten life. I am inclined to think that every American ought to have some hobby that involves vigorous exercise, if his daily work does not.

This leads directly to the subject of the handicrafts. We shall never have great art in this country until many people are doing things with their hands. How can we understand the man of skill unless we try to do some of the things he does? We should all try painting and modeling—not with the idea of becoming great artists, but to know something of the difficulties of the arts and be able to appreciate when we meet the triumphant achievements of the great masters. I belong to a group of people who started the Cliff Dwellers Club. The question asked of each member before he was admitted was, "What do you do with your leisure?" I had never been so impressed with the importance of the use of leisure time as in this connection. All at once I saw the difference there is in this world of people—those who appreciate and treasure their leisure time, making the most of it, and those whose one preoccupation is to "kill time." I recall a picture which I saw once in the *National Geographic Magazine*, where there was a row of Bushmen sitting upon a great log—about the hardest looking customers I ever beheld. They were doing nothing, and the caption was to the effect that these Bushmen were in the habit of sitting like this for hours at a time without saying a word. This is one way of using leisure time. We do not need to worry about Americans doing just this, but still there appears to be a general lack of appreciation of our opportunities.

I remember an expression used by either Henry or William James, writing, one to the other, when they were boys, "After all, it is the amount of life that a man feels that makes you respect him." Of course this must be taken with discrimination. There were some other James brothers who showed a considerable "amount of life," and yet our respect for them is tempered. In general the people who have no life in them are meaningless to us. They are like vegetables. Perhaps we might think, "If the Creator does not care, why should I?" But they are not interesting companions and we want companionship from men who are alert. Is our life one of stagnation or progress? It depends upon the awakening of enthusiasm. Responsibility is laid upon those who have the power to arouse interest and enthusiasm. Perhaps that is your job.

I was once asked to write an inscription for a memorial. They wanted something on this same subject of leisure, and I devised this: "Fateful are the leisure hours. They win or lose for us all eternity." I do not know much about eternity, but I have an idea people will continue to walk in the direction in which they are faced. I cannot see much progress in the vegetating life of so many who are equipped for something better. It is pitiful to think of this in a great world of beauty. It is something to know about beauty and art; it is more to know it intimately, to appreciate and feel its magic. Even to make a study of the surface of art is better than nothing; one might find great joy in it. It is in our leisure hours that we express ourselves. It is there that we have a choice as to how to spend our time. It is choosing that makes character and affects every day of our future.

The Greeks felt that in developing their own talents they were honoring their Creator. The very games of the gymnasium were a religious service;

their greatest artistic achievements were dedicated to the gods. Highest of all in their cult was the appreciation of the divine blessings. To my mind there can be no finer form of worship than the enjoyment to the full of Heaven's gifts, or, as it has been beautifully expressed, the development of a capacity to think over the thoughts of God.

OUTSTANDING WOMEN OF THE WORLD AND THE COSTUMOLOGY OF THEIR TIMES

MRS. MINNA M. SCHMIDT, LECTURER; AND DIRECTOR OF COSTUME
WORKSHOP, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

I take great pleasure in announcing that my figurines of the four hundred outstanding women of the world and the costumology of their times are now on exhibition at A Century of Progress, General Exhibits Building, opposite the Temple of Religion.

The figurines, unique models of these great women, were created for A Century of Progress. They are a Chicago product, grown from a desire to assemble distinguished women, their achievements, and the costumes they wore. The artistic and colorful costumes and hairdress will be most helpful for educative workers. The story of the deeds of the women and why they were selected will be an incentive to arouse dormant qualities in this and the next generation.

As a guide to the figurines I have published a book compiling these highly interesting biographies and portraits of these famous women, which were furnished by the embassies and the consulates of their respective countries. In addition the book contains two hundred and fifty pages of illustrated lectures and pageants. The pageants of "Goethe and the Women Who Crossed His Path," "The History and Progress of Chicago, 1803-1933," "The Romance of the Bridal Dress thru the Ages," "The Colorful Story of the Fan," "The Lure and Magnetism of Jewels," and the staging of the "History of the Crusades" are among those pageants that have played important parts on the campus of the University of Chicago and elsewhere. Then, too, there are instructive articles on service, facial characterization, wigs, coiffures, and beards. The important leaders in the nursing profession are shown in an attractive manner. The last lecture, "The Great Change in the Legal Status and Custom of Women in the Last Century," is well illustrated and valuable to all progressive and universally-minded people.

TEACHING MONEY MANAGEMENT

ELIZABETH DYER, DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF HOUSEHOLD ADMINISTRATION,
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, CINCINNATI, OHIO

The past four years have demonstrated what happens when a democracy is uninformed about its monetary system. The people of the United States are making a determined effort to eliminate some kinds of illiteracy among

the masses but as yet there has been no concerted effort to correct our state of economic illiteracy. Unquestionably the subject is a vast one and I do not want to minimize its difficulty or assume any more than normal intelligence or ability on the part of home economics teachers, and yet I do believe that home economics teachers can contribute to a better understanding of money and money management.

Home economics courses in foods and nutrition, textiles and clothing, family relationships and child care are more and more considering the economic aspect of these subjects. Selection and buying are now deemed as important as the developing of skills. In teaching pupils how to buy intelligently five objectives have been set up:

1. To teach the pupils how to analyze values that should be looked for in purchasing an article and to study the influences that help to create the desires of the individual.
2. To stimulate interest in considering the proportion of the income that should be expended for food, shelter, clothing, recreation, higher life, and savings.
3. To add to the pupils' knowledge of the factors that affect the values of the articles.
4. To give experience in developing discrimination and judgment in the selection of goods; or if this is not possible, to stimulate the demand for labels that will give the requisite information.
5. To make pupils aware of proposed legislation that affects the consumer.

Much can be accomplished in character development thru this type of work for it must help in creating a finer sense of values.

My plea is for the home economics teacher to go a step further and familiarize the pupils with the medium used in buying shoes or dresses or foods or bonds—to make money a very live part of the experience of the child. As we walk thru the business district of any town of any size we find a bank, a building and loan association, a mortgage company. Right here is an opportunity to make credit and banking an experience as real and vivid as shopping in a retail store or buying thru a mail order house.

Money management is far more than budgeting, altho planning and recording of expenditures are an important consideration. Preliminary to budget-making, however, must be an understanding of the elements of money, credit, banking, and investing; who or what issues money, controls, and expands it; what are sound controls of credit; what is wise banking; what is safe investment.

Most of our boys and girls will never be exposed to a college course in economics and even if they are the course will mean a great deal more to them if they have acquired a vocabulary in high school that will familiarize them with economic terms. In home economics classes this subject can be humanized and a lively interest in it aroused, for everyone is concerned with the getting of money and everyone should be led to see that the understanding of money is essential to a fairer distribution of it.

Would it not be well in every class in home economics to teach or review the simple facts about money, even if they are taught in social civics or in social science which they are probably not?

Many human interest stories may be used thruout the year to keep the subject of money before the pupils. Effort is made thruout all of the work in home economics to show how presentday problems have their roots in the past and to interpret historical facts as a basis for broader understanding of the present. This is especially true in the study of family relationships, home management, and textiles and clothing.

One thing we as home economics teachers can do, is to attempt to personalize the various activities of the economic order. It is not beyond the comprehension of the pupils of any town to learn what Banker Jones does in the town's first national bank. How he extends credit, how he is affected by the Federal Reserve System, how he makes money, and the part this plays in the buying and selling of goods. After we are taught that human beings manipulate money and credit and banking, and see how they do it, the next question naturally is why do they do it? In attempting to answer this question, we learn to consider the motives of the people who play a role in the economic system and then we are better able to understand the importance of profits in our economy and the desire for power. It will show why production has captivated the imagination of the economist as well as that of the inventor and of the politician, and why interest in consumption has been so slight. It will also show why consumption can no longer be ignored if the capitalistic system is to be saved.

I do not want to presume to minimize the fine work that is being done in teaching wiser consumption thru a better understanding of values and of the importance of planning expenditures. My contention is that we can further contribute to the subject by including a study of the nature of money, credit, banking, and the part that men and women play in our money and profit economy. If it cannot be included in the work in home economics, can we not agitate to have it taught to every high-school pupil somewhere in the high-school program?

HOW WE MAY STIMULATE GOOD TASTE IN CLOTHING SELECTION WHEN POPULAR FADS ARE CONTRADICTORY

UVA JANNEY, TEACHER OF CLOTHING AND PERSONAL REGIMEN,
COLLINWOOD HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Fashions are of great importance to all women. They love novelty and variety. There is danger of the consumer selecting fads instead of the more lasting styles in fashion, unless she naturally has good taste or has been trained.

When popular fads are contradictory, we, as teachers, may stimulate good taste in the selection of clothing in the following ways:

1. If we are to have any marked degree of influence with girls, we must have an unbiased, as well as an interpretative point of view, in respect to the prevailing fashions as they come out each year.

2. We must help the girls to acquire a knowledge and appreciation of the fundamental art principles which are the basis of all beauty. The gaining of this appreciation cannot be left to chance, but we must see to it that they have the opportunity to apply consciously these principles in the selection of their clothing.

3. Every girl needs to learn how to select clothing from the current fashions so as to emphasize the attractive lines of her figure and minimize the unattractive ones.

4. We want girls to appreciate their own individual skin tones, and know which values and intensities of different colors are best for them, in order that they may choose the most becoming color, regardless of whether it is the mode of the moment.

5. Each girl needs help in knowing how to express her personality in the selection of clothing.

6. We can help the girls eliminate "lazy garments," that is, those they seldom want to wear, from their wardrobe by training them so they can secure unity of expression in each ensemble; in each season's wardrobe, and in the entire wardrobe for the year.

HOW IDEALS AND ATTITUDES CHANGE DURING A GIRL'S COLLEGE LIFE—A STUDY MADE AT IOWA STATE COLLEGE

OPAL LYNN, GRADUATE ASSISTANT, IOWA STATE COLLEGE, AMES, IOWA

The present study was made in an effort to determine the extent of changes in the attitudes toward certain life values of the girls between the freshman and senior years at Iowa State College.

A questionnaire was formulated on the basis of the changes brought about during college living as expressed by a representative group of students. The most important life values and the changes in attitude toward them were: (1) Seniors desired to make 72 percent more changes in their own homes since coming to college than did freshmen. (2) A larger number of seniors than of freshmen had been able to establish a satisfactory philosophy of life. (3) Friends and instructors were the most important contacts influencing the attitudes of both groups toward life or things in general. Books played an important part in the lives of over half of the seniors but only one-fourth of the freshmen were influenced by them. (4) Freshmen worried most about studies and finances but more about the former. For seniors, the importance of these two was reversed. (5) Girl friend appeared to be the chief confidant of both groups, with mother ranking second. Mother, however, was the preferred confidant. Seniors tended to confide in their boy friends. (6) Freshmen thought college exerted a greater influence upon their desire for group conformity than upon their desire to be individual. Seniors expressed the opposite view. (7) Almost as many seniors as freshmen felt ill at ease in the presence of others. Less than one-third of the freshmen and over one-third of the seniors never felt ill at ease. (8) Over half the seniors and less than

one-half of the freshmen thought that a career and marriage could be successfully carried on at the same time. More freshmen than seniors preferred a career followed by marriage. Seniors preferred marriage alone. (10) Nearly all the girls thought there was a lack of contact between student and instructor. The most important reason given for this was lack of time.

The study indicated that important changes do take place between the freshmen and senior years which for the most part are only incidentally considered in the college curriculums and for which little advice is given.

COMMUNITY SERVICES AS A MEANS OF DEVELOPING THE HOME ECONOMICS VIEWPOINT

EMMA B. CHRISTY, SUPERVISOR OF HOME ECONOMICS, MUNCIE, IND.

Home economics teachers have always rendered many valuable services to the communities where they have worked. The reports of their work for the past year or two show a surprisingly large increase in the amounts and kinds of community services rendered.

In Indiana the committee studying this problem found such services as these I have listed below, which are probably much as you would find in any state:

1. Helping families to make maximum use of low incomes or make better use of relief allowances.
2. Organizing groups of women who wish to have help with emergency problems.
3. Planning and preparing adequate low cost diets.
4. Helping with the preservation of food.
5. Distributing clothing, food, and other relief supplies.
6. Developing leisure-time projects.
7. Planning easy and interesting ways of entertaining at low cost or no cost at all.
8. Caring for and making over clothing.
9. Various ways of helping families to keep up standards of living and still adjust to reduced incomes.
10. Helping to develop in individuals, attitudes of helpfulness towards others less fortunate.

Many others might be listed, in fact it is not difficult to find out the community services which are being rendered by teachers. Too much cannot be said in appreciation of the effort which many teachers have made to offer these services.

If we had a more accurate means with which to measure the value of these services to the community, it would mean much to home economics. Here as in measuring many other phases of home economics our yardsticks are inadequate. This, however, does not keep measurement or evaluation of the results of the services of home economics to the community by the best means available from being one of the most important factors in assuring the establishment of a right viewpoint of home economics.

We do have facts collected which show that in some communities services have met the needs so well that they have been an important factor in retain-

ing the home economics departments in certain schools. In other communities they have been so ineffective that they have been a means of influencing school administrators to remove the departments. Thru observation and close personal contact with the people in the community, it is not difficult for the alert home economics teacher to judge what the general viewpoint of her community is as to value of the services which the home economics program is rendering. This close contact is an opportunity which community services afford whether in times of crises or not, and no teacher can afford to lose sight of its importance.

The facts are also available which show that the services of home economics teachers to some communities have caused increased enrolment in home economics classes and greater respect for value of home economics to boys and girls. These facts have been secured thru such methods as personal letters from mothers, thru the girls themselves, and thru school administrators' reports.

In other communities, the enrolment has been constantly decreasing. Perhaps the lack of community services has been a factor in this; at least it would be well to evaluate the reasons and find out.

Anyone who has not studied your community carefully cannot tell you what your program of community services should be. After you have carefully planned your program, if it causes you to set aside your present course of study in order to meet the immediate needs of the community, I hope you will not be disturbed as some teachers have been because they feel community responsibilities are interfering with the progress of home economics in the classroom.

Is it not the job of the curriculum program to improve the manner in which the school discharges its responsibility to the community? If discarding a course of study means a teacher is better able to meet the needs of the homes as well as the boys and girls in her community, perhaps it is well for home economics that that community has had a depression. Certainly it is hoped that the teacher will not go back to her old course as normal times return, but rather that she has built up a philosophy for both her community and her school program which will provide for a continuous redefinition and reinterpretation of the ideals for her program in the light of economic, political, and social changes. This should make it possible for her to plan experiences for boys and girls, which make possible their greatest contribution to the community at all times.

PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH AS A MEANS OF CHARACTER TRAINING

ADAH H. HESS, STATE SUPERVISOR OF HOME ECONOMICS, SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

A psychological approach is evidently the approach to any action or event when the approach is most certain to have full effect upon the individual. Character means the sum total of one's tendencies toward socially approved behavior. The ideal character has been described as an inward and spiritual

grace of which reputation is or should be the visible sign. Inasmuch as one's reputation is largely determined by his personality our main objective in character training is developing personality. No one can give another personality. It is a growth made up of the habits, attitudes, ideals, and standards secured from training and experiences. Health, thrift, orderliness, clear clean thinking, self-control, self-reliance, honesty, truthfulness, courteousness, trustworthiness, cooperation, initiative, sense of responsibility, reverence, generosity, and altruism make up the good citizen.

Just how much emphasis the teacher shall place upon teaching personality directly and how much upon indirect methods must be determined by each teacher in the light of the needs of her students.

By providing an environment and working conditions where pupils may be happy in their work is one means of developing personality indirectly.

Where in the school work do we have a better opportunity to develop character either consciously or unconsciously than in the homemaking classes. Every act, every word, every deed of the instructor is watched and imitated perhaps unconsciously by the members of her classes. The personality and character of an instructor has a great deal more to do with her success than her technical training in home economics.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Chicago, Illinois

Business Meeting, Monday Afternoon, July 3, 1933

Carlotta C. Greer, president, called the meeting to order. The report of the treasurer, Mary M. Buckley, was read and accepted.

The report of the chairman of the Membership Committee, Mary M. Buckley, gave the membership as 251 and urged upon all the desirability of adding many new members by December first when reports go in to the National Education Association.

The following list of reasons why you should belong to the N. E. A. and the Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics compiled by Miss Greer and Miss Jacobs was read by Miss Buckley:

1. The N. E. A. is the largest educational association in the world. It takes care of more educational matters than any other organization in the country.

2. Because of its influence the organization can and is doing much for public schools.

3. In union there is strength. All persons interested in public-school education need to stand together.

4. Home economics needs to be represented and made a part of the largest educational organization.

5. The subject needs to be understood and appreciated by public-school executives.

6. A large active home economics group as a Department of the N. E. A. will influence the attitude of school executives toward this branch of education.

7. This department exists for the benefit of public-school home economists. Departmental research studies and programs have to do with home economics as applied to public schools. The results of the research studies are sent free to members of the department.

8. For both the general and departmental organizations there is no registration fee. A membership card admits all to meetings and other activities of N. E. A. organizations.

Miss Greer reported for the cooperative studies committee, Ada Kennedy, chairman. This committee has been carrying on a study to determine the status of nutrition in the public schools. This report to be eventually submitted to the Advisory Council. It was moved and seconded that the portion of the report presented be accepted.

The report of the Economics Committee, Benjamin Andrews, chairman, was presented by Dr. Bigelow. This committee desired to learn the needs of teachers and supervisors of home economics to give help on most urgent problems. Leaflets on the following subjects have been prepared: (1) Housing Situations; (2) Financing the Home; (3) Labeling of Foods and Drugs and (4) Budgeting Problems. Others are in preparation.

It was moved and seconded that this report be accepted. It was also voted to carry out Dr. Andrews' suggestion that federal aid be solicited in order to make the information this committee has assembled available. Emma S. Jacobs, National Council of Education member of this Department, reported on the meetings of the Council.

Miss Greer spoke of the excellent report compiled by Emeline S. Whitcomb, chairman of the Committee on How School Departments of Home Economics are Meeting the Economic Emergency. As the work of that committee was completed it was voted the committee be discharged.

Miss Jacobs, chairman of the Committee on the Constitution and Bylaws, explained previous changes. It was moved and seconded that the proposed change in the length of term of officers, Article 3, Section 3, be taken up for consideration to be acted upon at the February meeting.

Miss Jacobs moved and it was unanimously carried that a resolution be sent to Emeline S. Whitcomb expressing the deep regret of the Department at her severance from the Office of Education as specialist in home economics.

It was also voted to send the new Commissioner of Education and Secretary of the Interior resolutions expressing the regret of the Association at the abolishment of the position of specialist in home economics in the Office of Education and the sincere hope that they take every possible step to reinstate the office as soon as possible.

Miss Swain presented the report of Miss Higbee, chairman of the Nominating Committee: Carlotta C. Greer, president; Ada Kennedy, vicepresident; Alice L. Currier, secretary; and Mary M. Buckley, treasurer. It was moved and seconded that the report be accepted and that the secretary cast the ballot. The officers were declared elected.

The meeting adjourned.

Department of Teachers Colleges

THE DEPARTMENT OF TEACHERS COLLEGES takes the place of the Department of Normal Schools, which was formed at the Cleveland meeting, August 19, 1870, by a reorganization of the American Normal School Association which had been organized in 1858. See *Proceedings*, 1870:176; 1906:524. In 1924 it was voted to appoint a committee to discuss the possibility of combining with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. See *Proceedings*, 1924:614. In 1925 the combination was effected. It was arranged that the National Education Association take over the publications of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, including its yearbook, in 1926.

The officers of this Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Frank E. Baker, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wis.; *First Vicepresident*, W. A. Lewis, President, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays, Kans.; *Second Vicepresident*, J. A. Pitman, President, State Normal School, Salem, Mass.; *Third Vicepresident*, H. H. Cherry, President, Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Ky.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Charles W. Hunt, Dean, School of Education, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio; *Executive Committee*: George A. Selke, President, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.; H. L. Donovan, President, State Teachers College, Richmond, Ky.; U. S. Conn, President, State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebr.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1870: 1- 88	1886:387-420	1899:835-903	1911:695-707	1923: 737- 743
1873:164-199	1887:465-508	1900:480-490	1912:809-896	1924: 613- 635
1874:214-254	1888:463-512	1901:635-645	1913:523-552	1925: 863
1875:138-153	1889:555-609	1902:529-643	1914:497-564	1926: 839- 947
1876:157-211	1890:715-755	1903:539-593	1915:763-813	1927: 873- 950
1877:139-174	1891:709-740	1904:567-591	1916:441-460	1928: 833- 948
1879:113-135	1892:407-433	1905:517-555	1917:383-416	1929: 827- 936
1880:176-192	1894:819-870	1906:707-711	1918:209-234	1930: 801- 910
1881:199-218	1895:672-717	1907:739-758	1919:221-257	1931: 845- 945
1882:173-180	1896:642-665	1908:703-738	1920: 237- 262	1932: 713- 785
1884:236-258	1897:709-735	1909:547-596	1921: 515	
1885:223-247	1898:728-756	1910:563-593	1922:1063-1084	

NEXT STEPS IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHER TRAINING

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This paper advocates three major readjustments in the operations of teachers colleges. The first of these readjustments has to do with the curriculum; the second has to do with methods of teaching; and the third has to do with the relation of teachers colleges to the public-school system.

By way of introduction to the treatment of the three readjustments which will be advocated, it may be well to state explicitly that I am fully aware of some of the difficulties under which teacher-training institutions labor. I know that as publicly-supported institutions, teachers colleges are obliged in many instances to receive students who are ill prepared. I know that many students in teachers colleges are compelled to leave at the end of a short period of residence and that no program for teacher training can assume continuous residence on the part of all students for four or even three years. Indeed, my contact with the records of students convinces me that in an appreciable number of cases teaching begins at the end of a single year. I know, also, that the teaching program of instructors in teachers colleges is usually very heavy. Finally, I am well aware that the facilities for practise teaching in almost all American teacher-training institutions are wholly inadequate and that it is extremely difficult to establish relations with public-school systems which will correct the lack of practise facilities.

I mention these items of knowledge which are in my possession because I have often found that responsible officers in teacher-training institutions make reference to one or another of the facts mentioned whenever anyone suggests the possibility of a change in the program of a teachers college. It is my frank opinion that teachers colleges have accepted these well-known conditions as excuses for inefficiency so long that their presidents and faculties have come to believe that it is the inalienable right of a teachers college to attribute all of its imperfections to intolerable but uncorrectable handicaps imposed upon it from without. When, therefore, I come before this Association advocating reform, I am anxious to have all my hearers believe that I sympathize fully with teachers colleges because of the evils which have befallen them but I do not regard existing conditions as in the slightest degree justifying some of the practises which I believe are now very general in teacher-training institutions.

First, then, let us attack the curriculum. My criticism of teachers colleges, and, for that matter, of almost all other educational institutions, is that they lack inventiveness. Arithmetic is being taught today in much the same way that Warren Colburn taught it in 1821. There has been in recent years some expansion of the subjectmatter of geography and history, but there is, after all, a very close resemblance between the geography and history of today and the subjects which bore those titles in 1895. Reading has been redefined, thanks to the inquiries which were carried on in laboratories of

educational psychology, where the contrast between oral reading and silent reading was demonstrated. Even reading, however, is thought of in teacher-training institutions in terms very little different from those which were employed in courses on methods of teaching a generation ago.

While the schools go on repeating the orthodox round of school subjects, the world at large has introduced thousands of innovations. Life has become infinitely complex. Social institutions have taken on a wholly new importance. Changes in the industrial system have created new interests and new demands for knowledge.

How anyone can be content to drone monotonously thru the old forms of teaching in a world full of new interests, I do not know. It ought to be the function of teacher-training institutions to seize every new and interesting item of experience and make it available for the schools. Teachers colleges ought to be the leaders in incorporating into the curriculum of the elementary school all the items which this curriculum should carry in order to keep the school in contact with the moving social order. I make the statement without fear of successful contradiction that teachers colleges are among the most conservative influences in American education.

I advocate a revolution in teachers college curriculums. I advocate the immediate substitution of orientation courses for the orthodox courses now common. By orientation courses, I mean broad, general courses presenting summaries of the materials which make up the most significant and most interesting chapters in the sciences and in literary subjects. The reform should begin with the introduction of new materials in the curriculum of the freshman year. Let this year be devoted to opening up before the student hosts of new ideas which will stimulate his imagination and kindle an intellectual enthusiasm that will carry him thru his whole professional career.

I am sure that someone will say that this proposal is dangerous because it is contrary to the spirit of the old-fashioned Puritan view that mental power is cultivated by drill on distasteful tasks. It has long been thought to be necessary for prospective teachers to cultivate intellectual virtues by drudgery. The eyes and minds of students have been trained to see the minute things in the world. The members of the faculties of teachers colleges have conscientiously pursued students daily and hourly to make sure that they follow the routine of steady repetition of what has long been the accepted curriculum.

Let there be no mistake about the position which I am attempting to defend. I advocate opening the windows of teachers colleges to let in a flood of new experiences. I know of no way of stimulating the minds of young people that is more wholesome or more promising than to expose them to large, comprehensive bodies of modern knowledge. I would devote at least eight-tenths of the freshman year to orientation courses.

I have no fear whatsoever of lowering the scholastic standards if the program which is here advocated is adopted. It is my judgment that the scholastic standards of the past have been false standards. We have thought in

terms of stereotyped assignments and labored recitations. I am making a plea for ideas and more ideas.

It is my judgment that the preparation of orientation courses would be beneficial for members of the faculty as well as for the students. The most serious danger in teachers colleges is the danger of intellectual stagnation. I have seen some sorry cases of such stagnation among the members of the faculties of teachers colleges.

I suppose that another question which will be raised in objection to my proposal is the question: What is to become of professional courses? It will be pointed out that a teachers college is a professional school with a professional mission and a professional faculty. In answer to the question thus raised, I must be very explicit. Most of the courses given today under the title "Methods of Teaching" are not professional at all. They are mechanical. Courses in methods are, for the most part, so thin and so prescriptive that they give the student no sense of his own personal responsibility. Without a feeling and understanding of personal responsibility, no one is truly professional. The great trouble with the immature teachers of this country is that they are petty routinists. They have been supplied with the maxims about teaching which their forebears formulated and school supervisors have repeated now these many years. When I made the charge that teacher-training institutions are conservative, I had in mind the fact on which I am now laying emphasis. Conservatism consists in adhering to ancient customs. When teachers-in-training are told how to behave in the classroom, they are being drawn into the strictly orthodox practises of earlier generations. In my judgment, young persons who are to enter the teaching profession should be taught, first and foremost, the lesson of progress. The schools are moving. Ancient methods of operation will not suffice. I would abandon the course in methods of teaching and add to the orientation courses in science and letters an orientation course which will show young people what manner of schools they will find in democratic, changing America. Most of the inhabitants of this continent have never heard that democracy demands a school wholly different from that which is tolerable in the countries where the majority of the people are peasants. I would use the two-tenths of the freshman program which were not assigned to general orientation courses for a course on the American school system. I would not teach class management or methods of the recitation or anything of the kind to freshmen. I would try to do something comprehensive, something stimulating, something to raise teaching out of the conservative rut into which it has been pushed by long years of repetitious routine.

It has always seemed to me that high schools and institutions of post-high-school education make the mistake of using freshman year as a year of hard grinding on subjects which are supposed to prepare for courses in the later years of the institution's curriculum. Freshman year, as I have tried to envisage it, is a year in which large new horizons are opened up.

What is to be advocated in the later years of the curriculum? In order to answer that question, I must digress for a moment and describe, at least

in part, my second major readjustment. There should, in my judgment, be a radical change in the method of conducting the courses in teachers colleges. As the courses in teachers colleges are now conducted, there is far too much assigning of tasks and supervising of the student's work. Each day, conscientious instructors wear themselves out driving students—pleading, cajoling, punishing, and otherwise substituting outside motives for personal interest. American students in high schools and colleges exhibit a shocking lack of intellectual independence. Somewhere in the years above the elementary school, certainly before pupils leave the high school, individual learners should be thrown on their own responsibility. Until our institutions of higher education find out how to make students independent, self-directing learners, they will continue to turn out a horde of routinists. Education without intellectual independence is a contradiction in terms.

What I am recommending is the abandonment of the recitation and the development of the library method and the laboratory method of teaching and learning. Just as members of the faculties of teachers colleges ought to be stimulated to invent new contents of instruction, so should they be induced to invent new ways of making students discover truths for themselves.

If teachers colleges substitute library and laboratory courses for recitation courses, the possibilities of filling the upper years of the curriculum with content that is rich and interesting are unlimited. In history, for example, the students of the class, instead of reciting on a few meager pages out of a textbook, will come to class with reports of copious readings which they have discovered and followed of their own initiative. The class will become a place where collaboration in intellectual matters will be substituted for so-called "quiz" exercises. In the sciences, students will work in the laboratory on problems which they are led to recognize as crucial to an understanding of scientific methods of inquiry and generalization.

Perhaps we should be even more specific. After a freshman year devoted to general orientation courses, the student should be admitted in the sophomore year to two or three systematic courses in literature, or history, or social science, or natural science. Some time should be devoted to readings and observation in educational psychology and exploration into the history of educational changes. Junior year should continue the program of systematic study and should provide, on the professional side, opportunity for observation in the classroom and for some participation in the work of instruction. By the time students reach the senior year, they will, under this program, be prepared to specialize independently in the particular lines in which they choose to work professionally.

I think I can anticipate some of the objections which will be raised to the suggestions which I am making. It will be said that I am assuming a degree of intellectual maturity which is not found among the students in teachers colleges. I am quite prepared to admit that the program recommended assumes a high degree of maturity and initiative. My contention is that maturity comes only where responsibility is thrown directly and vigorously

on students. I am fully convinced that we cultivate immaturity by present-day methods.

In the second place, some of my critics are sure to ask where teachers-in-preparation are to find the opportunity to review the subjects which they are to teach. My answer is that any prospective teacher who is weak in arithmetic or writing or spelling should review the subject by himself. The teacher who does not know his own deficiencies and does not know how to correct them should be excluded from the profession. The American educational system has been far too complacent about formal routine teaching to correct the deficiencies of mediocre and unambitious persons who seek employment as teachers because they are not willing to struggle in the more strenuous competitions of modern life. Anyone who has to be driven thru arithmetic in order to repair his inadequate elementary schooling does not deserve to have public money spent on his socalled "education."

I should like to record at this point my utter dissent from the dogma long current in the American educational system that a teacher should be allowed to teach only those subjects in which he majored or minored in college. This dogma deliberately excludes the possibility of a teacher-in-service ever making himself competent in new lines. If I had my way about it, I should try to make it necessary for every member of the teaching profession to do something wholly novel at least once every two years. I repeat again and again the statement that American schools are in danger of stagnating. Any device which will prevent mere repetition, mere conformity to tradition, and mere imitation seems to me promising.

The third objection which will doubtless be urged against my recommendation is that I have unduly limited professional courses. I am frank to say that, in my judgment, purely professional work has very often been indefensibly overdone in teachers colleges. The fundamentals of a good professional training can, I believe, be given in four or five semester or quarter courses. An introductory course in the American educational system, a course in educational psychology, a course in the school in the social order in which historical material is freely used, a course in school organization and possibly a general course in classroom technics will, in my thinking, supply what a young teacher needs to make him professionally interested and professionally competent. It is implied in what has been said in earlier sections of this paper that students taking these professional courses will read extensively and independently the literature now available in professional fields.

There doubtless are other objections to the plan which I have recommended. There will have to be a new spirit of inquiry and invention in the faculty of teacher-training institutions. There will have to be a new organization of the class period; there will have to be a new demand on the time and energy of students. These innovations will be resisted as innovations always are, and apparently valid reasons for rejecting all that has been recommended will undoubtedly be advanced by those who are bent on rationalizing their refusal to organize a new kind of teachers college.

I shall content myself with a single general answer to all my critics. My answer is this: The present curriculum of teachers colleges and the present methods of teaching in these institutions are recognized as complicated, backward, formal, and inadequate to modern demands. What I have suggested may not prove to be the final cure for the present unsatisfactory condition. It seems to me that almost any kind of experimental program is better than the present unsatisfactory program. It seems to me that enough success has attended the organization of orientation courses and the adoption of free methods of instruction in those institutions which have adopted these devices to justify the expectation that future progress lies in the direction indicated by these new ways of conducting education at the higher levels.

The third major readjustment which this paper advocates is a reform of the relation of teachers colleges to public schools. It is not necessary to review here the historical reasons why teacher-training institutions in this country were, from the first, isolated and, in many respects, out of harmony with the other institutions administering advanced education. Nor is it necessary to more than mention the curious fact that the old normal school and the modern teachers college being state institutions were, and are, so dissociated from the neighboring public schools which are under local control that there has been little or no commerce between teacher-training institutions and the public-school system in the immediate neighborhoods of these institutions.

Somehow teachers colleges must find a way to overcome their isolation. There is a general formula which can be suggested for relating the teachers colleges to their surrounding schools. Let these colleges assume leadership in the production of new materials for the school curriculum and in the development of new methods of teaching. Teachers colleges have been too long satisfied to follow rather than lead. What I am suggesting is that teachers colleges prepare orientation courses, first for their own use and then for the use of surrounding schools. The leadership which will result from creative activity will be far more effective than any leadership which could possibly be bestowed by legislative enactment or contract with a local school board.

During the past few years, teachers colleges have been very eager to train high-school teachers. The ambition to train teachers for the upper division of the public-school system seems to arise from the expectation that in this way the dignity of the institution will be enhanced and its student body will be recruited from the superior graduates of the high schools.

It is charged with some justice that teachers colleges are failing in their duty to the state because they are devoting their major energies to training high-school teachers rather than perfecting the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. In entering the competition with liberal arts colleges for the preparation of high-school teachers, the teachers colleges have failed, I believed, to assume leadership. If I were speaking before a group of administrators of liberal arts colleges, I should not hesitate to

recommend reforms no less drastic than those which I have discussed here. The way to bring teachers colleges into their own is distinctly not thru imitation of the liberal arts colleges. Insofar as teachers colleges slavishly follow the example of the liberal arts colleges of this country, they will fail. The teachers college has an opportunity to influence the high school and the elementary school if it will only note that the whole educational plan of this country is changing and is in need of creative leadership. The junior high school, which has been trying for the past twenty years to break its way out of its cocoon, is tangled in a network of tradition from which the teachers college might extricate it if the teachers college would abandon absolutely the methods of the arts college and all its works. There is a new senior high school appearing in the United States which is much in need of encouragement and will receive this encouragement only from some institution which is not afraid to abandon the organization and form of the arts college.

Literally the worst possible course which the teachers colleges of this country can adopt is to follow in the footsteps of the conventional arts college. The hope of securing respectability by becoming an arts college is one of the most dangerous allurements to which teachers colleges seem to be falling victims. My exhortation to this body is to abandon the traditions of the arts colleges, make a first-hand study of the needs of American schools, invent the curriculum materials which these schools need, prepare for these schools teachers who have a broad outlook and an acquaintance with the larger issues of presentday life, and cultivate the respectability which comes from creative leadership rather than from imitation.

These exhortations are easier to voice than to satisfy in concrete institutional practises. I do not believe that any single institution can accomplish all that I have tried to suggest. I am confident that a group of far-sighted administrators working in cooperation could accomplish more than can possibly be achieved thru scattered and unrelated efforts.

I think it is not out of place for me to seek attention to my suggestions by giving expression to one final consideration which, I am sure, is in the minds of many of you. The teachers colleges of this country have come to a turning of the road. The day of large appropriations for numerous teachers colleges in each state is past. The demand for teachers who are routinists and recitation hearers is growing less and less. In the competition for survival of the fittest, only those teachers colleges will continue which have a constructive program. The day of muddling along with a combination of elementary professional courses and traditional academic courses is, perhaps, not altogether past but is near its end. Somebody somewhere is going to show the way by taking the next steps which lead in the direction of a new curriculum, a new method of instruction, and a new relation to the public-school system.

A PROGRAM OF DEVELOPMENT IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

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It may as well be confessed in the beginning that the scope of this title exceeds the discussion which is to follow. Its suggestion of a program of development implies a more or less definite organization of divergent or coordinate trends brought into a unity and moving forward to some defined goal. The implication is entirely too complete and finished for what, with your permission, I have chosen to talk about. I wish to direct attention to a single line of thought which, failing to be a program, yet seems to me a basic item in any such larger consideration. If the approach to the argument "begins doubtfully and far away," I hope in the end the argument itself will be clear, and that you will share my conviction of its importance and its compulsion.

If we are to chart the teacher's own education with any clarity, the ultimate end of his preparation must be held in lucid understanding. To this end I would enlist your interest by citing a recent and really significant addition to our thinking upon this matter, Beard's *Charter for the Social Sciences*. This small book is the first token of results from the Commission on the Social Studies operating under the auspices of the American Historical Association. The whole essay should be read to appreciate the task set for the teacher of the social sciences as conceived by this commission. The statement of little more than a hundred pages is comprehensive, penetrating, and written, as James once said of Bergson's *L'Evolution*, in "a style that makes hard things seem easy to follow." I have searched vainly for a quotation in summary of the scope and content of the picture presented in the essay but find none which does it complete justice. It has the unwonted merit of suggesting the magnitude of the educational landscape while at the same time it shoots across the map the cartographer's lines of reference which the traveler requires. "Competence in the individual," Beard writes, "is the supreme objective. So far as the individual is concerned, perhaps all may be summarized under the head of developing latent powers. Our fundamental purpose here is the creation of rich, many-sided personalities, equipped with practical knowledge and inspired by ideals so that they can make their way and fulfil their mission in a changing society which is a part of a world complex."¹

From this generalization the author descends to such matters as information, necessary skills, powers of analysis, methods of thought, habits, attitudes, will-power, courage, imagination, and appreciation, all of which must in some way ripen from school instruction in the social sciences. Prefacing the reasoned consideration which leads up to the final chapter wherein the quoted words occur, we find this paragraph:

¹ Beard, Charles A. *A Charter for the Social Sciences*. Report of the Commission on the Social studies of the American Historical Assn., Part I, p. 96-97. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932

Speaking generally, we may say at the outset that instruction in the social studies in the schools is conditioned by the spirit and letter of scholarship, by the realities and ideas of the society in which it is carried on, and by the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process at the various grade levels across which it is distributed. Admittedly, other stipulations are possible, but these seem to be stubborn and irreducible, to use favorite words of William James. They seem to set a certain inevitable framework for determining the content and applications of civic instruction.¹

If apology is needed for attending at length to the outcomes of instruction in the social studies in our schools it may be found in the manner in which political, economic, ethical, and social problems have thrust themselves upon our minds in recent months and to the further fact that civic welfare and individual conduct have forever been accepted as integral with the purpose of education. Unless we are to renounce the function generally accorded to school instruction in the structure, the continuity and the improvement of civilization, we must gaze with clear vision at the fact which leaps up whenever we inquire how the school is to perform its service to society.

That ever-protruding and irreducible fact is that such service of the schools can arise only from the incidence of the activities of teachers upon the personalities of children. The much lauded American school system, with its expansive buildings, its greatly improved administration, and its large budgets, is essentially subordinate in all its particulars to the millions of social situations constantly occurring in classrooms and in the manifold experiences centering about them. From these, if from anywhere, must flow the influences which affect society and which accomplish the supreme purpose, to use Beard's phrase, of producing "the competent individual."

If to anyone it seems a simple matter to make the individual competent to enter into modern life let him examine the two-volume Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. Within the fifteen hundred pages of this report the scholars assembled by the committee have attempted to portray the shifting scene of American life and to paint its present pattern. These two volumes of "findings" are to be supported by thirteen supplementary volumes giving the factual data upon which the "findings" are based. No short review of this report can reveal the wealth of information and interpretation which it contains. Something of its scope can be suggested by short quotations:

The first third of the twentieth century has been filled with epoch-making events and crowded with problems of great variety and complexity. The World War, the inflation and deflation of agriculture and business, our emergence as a creditor nation, the spectacular increase in efficiency and productivity, and the tragic spread of unemployment and business distress, the experiment of prohibition, birth control, race riots, stoppage of immigration, women's suffrage, the struggles of the Progressive and the Farmer Labor parties, governmental corruption, crime and racketeering, the sprawl of great cities, the decadence of rural government, the birth of the League of Nations, the expansion of education, the rise and weakening of organ-

¹ Beard, Charles A. *Op. cit.*, p. 2.

ized labor, the growth of spectacular fortunes, the advance of medical science, the emphasis on sports and recreation, the renewed interest in child welfare—these are a few of the many happenings which have marked one of the most eventful periods of our history.

With these events have come national problems urgently demanding attention on many fronts. Even a casual glance at some of these points of tension in our national life reveals a wide range of puzzling questions. Imperialism, peace or war, international relations, urbanism, trusts and mergers, crime and its prevention, taxation, social insurance, the plight of agriculture, foreign and domestic markets, governmental regulation of industry, shifting moral standards, new leadership in business and government, the status of womankind, labor, child training, mental hygiene, the future of democracy and capitalism, the reorganization of our governmental units, the use of leisure time, public and private medicine, better homes and standards of living—all of these and many others, for these are only samples taken from a long series of grave questions, demand attention if we are not to drift into zones of danger. Demagogues, statesmen, savants and propagandists have attacked these problems, but usually from the point of view of some limited interest. Records and information have been and still are incomplete and often inconclusive.

The Committee does not exaggerate the bewildering confusion of problems; it has merely uncovered the situation as it is. Modern life is everywhere complicated, but especially so in the United States, where immigration from many lands, rapid mobility within the country itself, the lack of established classes or castes to act as a brake on social changes, the tendency to seize upon new types of machines, rich natural resources and vast driving power, have hurried us dizzily away from the days of the frontier into a whirl of modernisms which almost passes belief.¹

Altho to any sensitive person living thru the past decade the trends described cannot have been unnoticed, it is an exciting adventure to range thru the twenty-nine chapters of the report. Some appreciation of the scope of the study may be suggested by merely naming some of the chapter headings: The Population of the Nation, Utilization of Natural Wealth, The Influence of Invention and Discovery, The Agencies of Communication, Trends in Economic Organization, Shifting Occupational Patterns, Changing Social Attitudes and Interests, The Rise of Metropolitan Communities, The Status of Racial and Ethnic Groups, The Family and Its Functions, Labor Groups in the Social Structure, The Arts in Social Life, Health and Medical Practice, Crime and Punishment, The Growth of Governmental Functions, Taxation and Public Finance. The range of vital interests here suggested, the complexity of modern social relations, their dependence upon swift-moving events in the realm of natural science and industrial invention, the jostling and unsettlement of established institutions, the whole fluid character of modern civilization are revealed with a vividness and an impact that is literally upheaving.

The effect upon one's understanding of having brought together in a single treatise the manifold details of current human activities is tremendous. When one turns from the breath-taking experience of traveling speedily thru the statement of facts and forces that make the modern world to the

¹ *Recent Social Trends in the United States*. Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, p. xi-xii. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.

realization that the intelligent entrance of young people into this world is thru the schools, one glimpses something of the intricate task confronting the teachers in these schools. Yet this large purpose of education we cannot for a moment forget if we would understand rightly the problem of the teacher's preparation.

Just to get a vivid sense of the problem confronting the colleges in the matter of educating teachers to function in this new world, I recently examined these volumes by Beard and by the President's Committee and then set alongside of them the Iowa report on the preparation of teachers in the public schools of that state. How well, I asked, are the teachers of Iowa qualified to induct its children into the complex social world ahead of them? To be sure, only the external facts of preparation are set down in the report but they are sufficient to call seriously in question the present adequacy of teachers to the indicated task.

This report, which gives data for the year 1928-29, shows that 88 percent of all teachers in the rural schools had not more than eighteen weeks beyond high-school preparation and that 57 percent had not more than two years' experience in teaching. More than that the total training of "the new teachers" was "but little better than the training of the total group."

We are prepared to learn that the city elementary teachers have had a longer period of schooling. However, but 6 percent of them had had as much as four years beyond high school, and only 29 percent had had more than two years of college training. The junior high-school situation is slightly better, showing 54 percent with baccalaureate degrees. However, 23 percent have had less than two years in college. In the senior high schools 24 percent do not have a college degree and only 4 percent have taken work beyond the baccalaureate. In addition, 39 percent were new in their positions and 53 percent have had only three years or less of teaching experience anywhere.

While the length of the training period is a rough indication of the competence of teachers, the character of that training, its content, its appropriateness to the subjects taught, the character of the institutions in which it is received are admittedly more important. In this matter the Iowa study is scarcely more reassuring. It reveals hundreds of teachers in the schools who, in terms of the subjects studied in college, are inadequately trained for the tasks in which they are engaged. Of 1600 teachers who name the social studies as the major field of instruction in senior high schools, approximately one-third have not had so much as a minor in any of the social studies while in college. Less than one-half of the total number have had so much as a major in either history, economics, political science, or sociology, and only one-eighth have had training to the extent of a minor in two of these fields. To be sure, young women trained in music or home economics or Latin or mathematics or chemistry may be attractive individuals and they may function without personal disaster in classroom management following texts or outlines placed in their hands, a service which is too often interpreted as success in teaching, but their competence to induct young people into the intri-

cacies of our modern economically disturbed world will hardly be argued by any sane person.

If, as we like to think, a college stamps its character upon its students, then it becomes important to know the institutions from which the teachers come. The Iowa report is somewhat difficult to interpret in regard to particular fields but it appears that teachers of the social studies in senior high schools have been trained in a wide variety of colleges. Probably a fifth have studied at the state university and a third in all of the three state institutions. Another fifth have been educated outside the state, and more than two-fifths have come from the numerous and widely varying liberal arts colleges within the state.

Iowa is one of the really great states of our union. Its life is based upon the natural resources of a valley that can hardly be duplicated anywhere in the world. Its people are of the best racial stocks that have populated our land. Its literacy as measured by census figures is relatively high. Yet you cannot spend a week in this state, as I recently did, without being impressed with the economic bewilderment of its people. Ruinous commodity prices, industrial stagnation, failures of financial institutions, modes of taxation that fail to provide the needed revenues for public service while at the same time they overburden taxpayers, loads of debt that threaten the very existence of the people, the certain and ominous rumblings of discontent, inadequate legislative panaceas born of despair meet one at every turn. If in the face of this confusion one inquires whether the schools have or can provide leadership for the young people who are coming so rapidly upon the scene and into whose hands the solution of these puzzling problems must soon pass, the answer is an obvious if reluctant negative. The teachers in these schools are simply not equipped to render such service, not even to trace historically the lines of force that have led to the present upheaval.

Reference to the Iowa situation is not made for the reason that it is unique but for the very opposite reason. Iowa may be regarded as fairly representative of the better states. From region to region these conditions vary but nowhere do we find a body of teachers in the schools competently trained to represent to the coming generation the vast social heritage of the race and to induct them into a future bewildering in its immediate problems and portentous in its implications. Out of this picture of present conditions, the complex task on the one hand and the inadequate education of teachers on the other, arises our first suggestion for the future. The education of teachers must be increased in length, broadened and enriched with material, and given a larger vision and purpose. Unless this is done the schools can give no leadership to our people, nor can they prepare young people for the life ahead of them. Unless the teachers in these schools can exhibit some scholarly authority in the subjects they teach, the schools face the unhappy issue of becoming doubtfully useful ornaments of our social life.

It is clear, of course, that the problem posed by this discussion involves other agencies than those engaged in teacher preparation. The chaotic char-

acter of teacher certification and the low economic status of teachers in local districts are barriers to the improvement of instruction that seem, at times, well-nigh insuperable. But for the moment these lie outside of our discussion which is here concerned with the part of our teacher-preparing colleges.

If we may suggest improvement in the situation here described, two directions of advance may be pointed out. One of these lies in the improvement of the college curriculum; the other calls for enhancing the scholarly character of college faculties.

We have now had sufficient experience with the education of teachers, and the social demands for the services of good teachers have been sufficiently demonstrated that colleges should say we will no longer approve for graduation young men and women who are deficient either in the range of their studies or in the quality of their performance. No more should students be permitted to piece together fragmentary course credits of more or less related subjects merely to aggregate the number required for a degree. They should not be allowed to spread themselves thin over the elementary work of a number of fields without achieving competent mastery in any field. Nor should we longer delude ourselves with the tradition that either general education on the one hand, or the multiplication of teaching tricks and educational theory on the other will suffice to produce a competent teacher in any particular field. The time has come for colleges to exercise some wisdom and conscience in placing their stamp of approval upon their graduates and their degree should carry some guarantee that a student who claims by virtue of training to be prepared for a certain type of teaching is really informed in matters he fain would teach.

In order to give concreteness to this view in relation to the social sciences may I suggest the broad outlines of curriculum content implied. Recognizing that there may be a number of ways in which the several fields of knowledge may be combined, it is urged that the teacher of social studies should have had college training in history, political science, economics, and sociology. Numerous combinations of courses may be worked out, and undoubtedly some may be superior, but the first essential is that the student shall contact all these major fields. He will not be competent in any one if he is ignorant of the great borderlands which, for facility of study, have been segregated under other titles. The second requirement should be that in at least one of these fields his study shall be carried far enough to provide some mastery of the methods of scholarship in the social sciences. Unless such mastery is achieved the student will be left without any firm mooring in entrenched truth in any field and he will be without the methods of work necessary to the continuance of his growth after graduation, the latter condition being fundamental to his ultimate competence as a teacher.

When a few lines back the quality of performance was suggested, there was in mind something other than the marks students may achieve in courses. The widespread reaction in colleges against graduation merely upon the basis of credits has sound educational theory to support it. Institutions are well-advised in insisting upon other evidences of intellectual

competence. The problem for the colleges is to find a way to guarantee, not merely that the student has taken indicated courses, but that at the time of graduation he is in possession of the knowledge, the attitudes, the modes of thinking which the taking of such courses implies, and that he is at home in dealing with the interrelations of ideas which the courses supposedly comprehend. Presumably the pursuit of courses is the normal route to such mastery, but conceivably, also, these accomplishments may eventuate without the student pursuing courses in the usual way at all. Wherever the latter is possible it should be encouraged. But whatever the method used by the student, the business of the institution is to make sure that the student is competent regardless of his time-serving in the courses which the institution offers. The one obvious device for this assurance is the qualifying examination at or near the time of graduation. With all its defects, and they are many, this technic is certain to find wider use in the years immediately ahead. Until some better method is evolved it would seem to be our chief reliance, and whatever the method, the end is clear. Mastery alone and not time-serving should count.

While this discussion has centered about the social studies, its implications obviously extend to other areas such as the natural sciences, languages, literature, and the fine arts. To expand in these fields would but merely emphasize the trend of thinking already developed. However, the argument would be incomplete if we did not follow its meaning to the quality of our college faculties themselves. No good administration of a college, no advanced certification program, no formally acceptable curriculum can compensate for deficiencies of scholarship in the college faculty, and one does not have to study college faculties long to suspect that a major part of our present difficulty lies in this area.

Let us disabuse our minds at once of the usual bogey of this problem by admitting that advanced degrees are no assurance of the kind of scholarship here in question. To be sure, we have evolved as yet no other easily applied measure of this desirable characteristic of a college instructor and the application of this requirement by accrediting agencies has undoubtedly done much to improve our institutions. The badge of a degree is valuable only for what it may represent; it is the possession of the rich store of learning that may or may not be represented by a degree that is the essential matter. While some speak contemptuously of degrees, as is the custom, and while others urge as "equivalents" many species of academic coin which sound judgment would reject, let us not be diverted from the fundamental matter, namely, that a scholar is a person of intellectual authority in the field of his interest.

May I return once more to Beard:

Scholarship has its own imperatives To say that science exists merely to serve the instant need of things, causes or parties is to betray a fatal ignorance of inexorable movements in thought. . . .

No more than society itself must scholars justify themselves They stand where they stand and they have their reason of faith, if not of State. By the vows of

their craft, they must cover the wide world and all time with their searchings. Nothing that mankind has done on the face of the earth is foreign to their interest. They use all the great languages living and dead in their researches. They delve amid the ruins of the buried empires of antiquity in their quest for more light on the origins of civilization. They visit the newest industrial cities hunting light on social organization. . . . All forms of government, no less than the Constitution of the United States, all religions, all economic orders, all crafts and all arts, the noblest aspirations of humanity and the crimes of opinion and violence fall within the reach of their study and contemplation.

By the vows of their craft, imposed by the very nature of the mind and the materials in which they delve, these scholars are committed to a method indispensable to their cause. Wherever they labor they must have before them one object—the truth about the matter under inquiry, whether small or great. And if their method is to be characterized by a single constricting adjective, it must be the word “scientific.” About the inner essence and ultimate validity of the scientific method, especially its relation to logic and imagination, much can be said by way of criticism. Around its outer edges, as of all other instrumentalities of inquiry and thought, hovers uncertainty; but the rational exigency of its demands cannot be denied. Those who follow it say, in effect, “give us all the pertinent facts available about the situation in hand, accurately and precisely disengaged from rumor and mythology; let us assemble and arrange them with primary reference to their inner necessities; let us view them with calm detachment, eliminating as far as humanly possible all our immediate interests and preconceptions; let the ordered facts speak for themselves to those who have ears to hear, trusting the event to a power beyond ourselves.”¹

Beard’s defense of the scholar is so illuminating and compelling that I am tempted to let him carry the argument further:

When we examine closely the huge body of literature coming under the head of social studies, including at least several thousand of the central pieces, we find that it is a curious combination of materials. By no possible legerdemain can it be cut, reduced, and fitted into a form that can be easily presented even to mature minds, to say nothing of children in the grade schools. To be sure there are many texts in history, economics, civics, sociology, and kindred subjects which, taken collectively, are advertised as “covering the whole field.” In a way, more or less satisfactory, they do, of course; but no philosopher could accept them as more than the beginning of a tale to be told. If, on the other hand, we direct our attention to the great works in this field from which all others are drawn, we find no such neatness in detail, or grave perfection in the mosaic.²

It is out of this vast complex of ideas, observations, accumulations, and inferences, supplemented by personal inquiries and experience, that our little schemes of social studies must be manufactured. . . .

Out of the raw materials of the world and life, out of the immense accumulation of ideas and traditions incorporated in the written word, must be made the social science to be taught in the schools and the purposes of governing its presentation.³ . . .

This does not mean, however, that *a* or *the* social science has been created, a synthesis transcending the disciplines themselves. Nor in the present state of things does such an achievement seem possible. Each of the disciplines inevitably has a center of gravity or furnishes a point of view from which materials are surveyed and brought into an organization of knowledge. Apparently a synthesis, could it

¹ Beard, Charles A. *Op. cit.*, p. 6-9.

² *Ibid.*, p. 13-14.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 16-17.

be effected, would be skillfully wrought mosaic rather than subliminal coalescence in which the separate disciplines would disappear and completely lose their identity as law, politics, economics, geography, and history. Conceivably some higher unity may be attained, many new arrangements of materials may be effected, but the stubborn and irreducible elements of the special disciplines would remain imbedded in it and, unless it were formless and void, it would inevitably be organized around some central philosophy of concept, faith, or assertion.¹

In the light of such a conception of the scholar's place in the making and teaching of the social studies what shall we say of our college faculties?

I have recently visited a number of higher institutions in connection with the North Central Association study of accrediting standards. Among other matters I have been charged with a study of the faculty. We have collected large amounts of data on faculty qualifications, entirely too much our critics say. But in addition to these data I have in each institution asked myself a question first suggested to me by a remark of David Starr Jordan: "Is this place habitable by scholars? Could a scholar develop in this school; could he survive beyond the first stages of scholarly achievement?" The answer is by no means always clear for so much depends upon the individual himself. But whatever the character and drive of the man, his development will be influenced by the required hours of service, by the salary he receives, by the condition of library and laboratory equipment, by the attitude of the administration toward scholarly achievement, by the respect of his colleagues for his work, and by all those less tangible aspects of an institution which we are wont to describe as its tone and atmosphere. The question, I feel sure, penetrates to the very core of an institution's character, and if a valid answer could be given it would be a profound measure of the institution's quality. No easy answer is possible in most cases, but negative answers are too often indicated to permit one to feel complacent about our higher institutions. The conditions deterrent to scholarship can be improved, and they must be improved if the preparation of teachers for the secondary schools is to rise much above the level pictured in the Iowa report.

If the implications of these remarks seem too severe a criticism upon the present quality of college faculties let me cite some facts bearing upon the issue. The Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends is unquestionably a major contribution of scholarship in the social sciences. The committee itself is composed of six distinguished scholars, all recognized leaders of American thought in this field. In the process of its study this committee threw a dragnet over the land drawing to its aid hundreds of agencies and scholars from wherever they could be found. The published list of acknowledgments is incomplete but an analysis of the names included throws an interesting light upon our present discussion. Five hundred and sixty-nine individuals are named. Of these 136 are in governmental service, federal and state, 40 are connected with private foundations, 80 with commercial and industrial enterprises, 180 with universities, 21 with liberal arts colleges, a conspicuously large percentage of these are in

¹ Beard, Charles A. *Op. cit.*, p. 20-21.

colleges for women, and two are in teachers colleges. Of the total list only 23 persons are located in undergraduate colleges educating teachers, yet it is these colleges that prepare most of the teachers for the schools, even for the secondary schools.

One may entertain some doubt that this illustration is just to the colleges. I, therefore, turned to another source from which information could be secured. *American Men of Science* is our most comprehensive biographical list of individuals engaged in the making and teaching of science. It aims "to include all living Americans who have contributed to the advancement of science." The latest edition, published in 1927, contains 13,500 names and presumably most of the persons of any note are to be found listed therein. I have not been able to make analysis of all the names but I have chosen four samples of twenty-five pages each. The relations among the various groups from one sample to the next is sufficiently constant to justify the belief that the samples combined are representative of the entire book. If this is a reliable inference, then it appears that less than 1.5 percent of America's men of science are to be found in teachers colleges and only about 14 percent in liberal arts colleges not connected with universities. While no figures are available showing the total number of persons teaching science in such institutions, these percentages would seem to indicate that but a small part of the total group are persons of sufficient accomplishment to have attracted the attention of their colleagues in other institutions. Thus there are probably more than 2500 persons teaching some form of science in teachers colleges. This study indicates that less than 200 (175) of them belong to the craft to the extent of being favorably known to other men of science whose judgment was the basis of the compilation. This is the condition in a period when science has been running wild with school and college curriculums, when new discoveries in science have been unsettling our whole social structure, and when new philosophies born of science have created new modes of thought concerning the very basis of our confidence in religion, ethics, and civilization itself.

May I support this point with one more illustration. The subject of psychology would seem to bear peculiar importance in an institution educating teachers. Who teaches psychology in such institutions?

The American Psychological Association is the one organization of national scope to which American psychologists belong. By a provision for associate membership it is possible for persons of even minor achievements in psychology to belong, and presumably individuals with very modest claims to recognition would avail themselves of the advantages of membership. The Association has had a phenomenal growth, rising from 425 members in 1921 to more than 1500 in 1932. No other science in history has experienced anything even approximating this rapid expansion. The Association holds an annual meeting and there are regional groups which meet at other times. In 1929 the psychologists of America were hosts to an International Congress of Psychology at New Haven. The Congress was widely advertised among psychologists and many new members were added. At such

meetings the programs are largely devoted to progress in psychological knowledge, to the reporting of experimental studies, and in recent years, the bearings of psychology upon education have received increasing attention. Membership carries the privilege not merely of attendance at the meetings but also of receiving certain important publications. The lure of membership is thus very attractive to any person interested in the science, and it is difficult to see how any alert student or teacher of psychology could deny himself the privilege of belonging.

The bearing of these facts upon the education of teachers is far from reassuring. In one state having within its borders fourteen colleges educating teachers there were only four which claimed members of the Association on their faculties. Of the more than 1500 members only about 4 percent were in teachers colleges and not more than 15 percent appeared to be in all undergraduate colleges educating teachers. Of the 272 teachers colleges there were only 31 represented in the membership of the Association with a total of 66 members, and the liberal arts colleges were not particularly better. For all such institutions, including all of the older and better known colleges, the total membership in the Association was a little more than 200. More than half of the entire group are to be found in the large endowed and tax-supported institutions, and there are as many psychologists connected with public schools, medical schools, clinics, industrial concerns, and social agencies as teach in all undergraduate colleges, a striking evidence that these newer agencies are more responsive to the changing science of psychology than are the colleges themselves.

I have at different times studied the membership of other learned societies representative of those fields of knowledge taught in colleges educating teachers. I have also given some attention to the publications of college faculties. Similar investigations have been made by others. The trend of findings in such studies parallels the facts already given and shows that on the whole the colleges from which the vast majority of our teachers now come are not outposts on the frontiers of knowledge. In a world which for a century has been bursting with new intellectual experiences, where new ideas in science and social theory and economics have been popping forth with amazing rapidity, these institutions have been, to a great degree, tranquil zones unlashd by turbulent currents of ideas from the frontiers of intellectual discovery. Even at their best the faculties of the colleges which prepare teachers are not to any great extent creators of knowledge but purveyors of other men's ideas. They can speak not with the authority of mastery but in the undertones of subalterns.

If time allowed, I could cite heartening examples of men who have risen above the mediocrity of their surroundings: a physicist who rose to distinction in an unaccredited college, a chemist who in a course of years sent twenty-seven young men to achievement in his field, a geographer who was called to serve in international conferences, a young historian rewarded with a remunerative scholarship, a teacher of language whose literary work

attracted favorable notice thruout the world, a musician whose services have been sought by large universities. Much of the glory of such examples, however, derives not from their magnitude but from their rarity, and they do little to relieve the general picture.

Yet it would seem that any genuine development in the education of teachers will require the multiplication of such men in all our institutions. It is the future teachers of children who are entitled to sit at the feet of scholars, to learn their facts and their methods, to see how they work and to inhale their spirit, to join with them in the never ending but ever alluring search for established truth.

The quality of institutional competence suggested by this discussion will to some seem utopian and beyond the reach of possible attainment. The alternative will be the failure of the colleges to meet the exigent requirements of our civilization. The patterns of thought and of life for a changing world cannot be set by a college faculty which is caught in the intellectual molds of a way of life that is gone or fast receding. To be sure, the imitative tendencies of men are strong, as the so-called "movements in higher education" so abundantly testify, but intellectual leadership has passed from that institution which merely accepts for its own use practises developed elsewhere. It is the absence of a virile critical scholarship resident in our individual institutions which renders them so sensitive to the educational follies of the passing years, weather vanes to the breezy notions about creative education, activity curriculums, professionalized subjectmatter, honors courses, vocational guidance, and the like. Only scholars grounded in the intellectual imperatives of their craft can give just appraisal to these or to any other icons of the passing patter about education. It is only such men that can impart genuine power to an institution, give it the constructive initiative necessary to commanding influence, and make our schools, as we love to claim they are, the instruments of progress. It is thru the improvement of college faculties that the preparation of teachers can be made better, and that institution bids for distinction which, for its faculty, will select only scholars or younger men of scholarly promise and will then hedge them about with the protection and encouragement that make possible the achievement of authority.

This discussion will appear to some to have neglected many of the major features of a progressive development in the education of teachers. This is by intent in order to throw into unmistakable perspective the single feature of that development which alone can impart significance to other matters. Organization, technics of student selection, curriculums, modes of teaching, equipment, enrolments, placements, administration, budgets, slogans, by no means negligible factors in the total program, cannot, all combined, lift an institution above the intellectual level and scholarly competence of its faculty. Unless institutions which educate teachers can themselves become centers of learning in a genuine sense they may as well abandon the hope of leadership in a distressed world.

SIGNIFICANCE OF NEW COLLEGE

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It will be well at the beginning to say that the title of this paper should be the Purpose of New College rather than the Significance of New College, since it remains to be seen, no matter what our hopes may be, just how much significance New College will have. In a new project we should be chiefly concerned with the aims, and let the significance be judged at a later time.

The two chief functions of New College at Columbia may be very briefly stated and then explained somewhat more fully. Its first, and its chief, purpose, perhaps, is to serve as a laboratory in the training of college and university teachers for professional schools engaged in the training of teachers, just as a university high school or teachers college demonstration or practise school serves in the training of teachers for secondary and elementary schools. Its second important use is to provide us with an opportunity to try out new or test old procedures and theories in the field of elementary or secondary teacher training.

For almost twenty years I have been engaged in the training of teachers for college and university posts, particularly in institutions devoted to the training of teachers. Teachers College, Columbia University, Peabody College for Teachers, Chicago University, and a few other universities have devoted the larger part of the energies of their schools of education to the preparation of teachers for college positions. These institutions have given all of their attention to the theoretical and academic preparation of future college teachers by requiring them to take courses and degrees in subject-matter and education departments. The academic departments at Columbia, for example, aside from what Teachers College does, recommend young Ph.D. and M.A. graduates to college positions merely upon the basis of academic courses and without regard to professional courses in education.

Our schools of education and our academic departments have been alike thus far in one thing—they have not insisted upon any kind of practical training or practise teaching for young persons about to take college teaching positions. We require by law in most states all elementary and secondary teachers to have some sort of practise teaching under supervision before certificates for teaching may be granted. I believe that most of you would agree that sound professional preparation of any sort of teacher would consist of sound academic scholarship, professional and theoretical courses in the field of education, and practise teaching. I hold that this is just as true for the novice college teacher as it is for the novice in the elementary or secondary school. To help correct this fundamental weakness in college teacher training, New College was established.

The chief significance of New College will probably be that it is an open, direct attempt to put the training of college and university teachers upon a sound theoretical and practical basis. It is important that we do this

job well, but it is even more important that we do something about the preparation of teachers for college and professional schools beyond what we are now doing. Personally, I have recommended hundreds of my own students for college positions when I didn't actually know that these persons could teach and lacked practical facilities for finding out the real facts about them. I maintain that it is professionally unethical to give a person a teaching degree when we don't know whether that person is a good teacher. I hope the day is soon at hand when no one will be allowed to teach in college or professional school who has not demonstrated a capacity and skill in teaching, just as we demand it of elementary and secondary teachers. This should apply equally to principals, supervisors, superintendents, and any other administrative officer.

Some may ask, Do you intend to give all of the Teachers College graduates who are going into college teaching opportunity to practise and observe in New College? Manifestly that will be impossible. The number of graduate students who may be given the opportunity of teaching in New College will be very limited. We shall have to resort to finding opportunities for college practise teaching in other divisions of the University and in co-operating colleges. This is exactly what happens in your teachers colleges and normal schools when the campus demonstration or practise schools are not sufficiently large to accommodate all of the student teachers—you seek cooperating public school systems that are able to provide the facilities needed. For a number of years we have been cooperating with a number of teachers colleges in the training of supervisors of student teaching.

The second chief purpose of New College is to permit us at Teachers College, who have been telling you how to train teachers, to do some practical, experimental work of our own in the field of elementary and secondary teacher training. We have been pretty much like chemists without a laboratory in which to test our theories. I believe that New College will give a reality to our courses on teacher training that they have not hitherto possessed. Our theories will be sounder and simpler because they will have been tested.

It is the purpose of New College to give such initial preparation to prospective teachers of the nursery school, the kindergarten, the elementary and the secondary school that they will not only be able to stimulate and share in the intellectual and spiritual life of the communities in which they will work, but also be able to assume leadership in educational activities. It is a purpose which suggests that the curriculum for the education of teachers includes the whole body of experiences in which the teacher engages as an individual, as a member of society, and as a teacher of children. The following are suggested as essential characteristics of such a curriculum:

- (1) There will be experiences that will help the prospective teacher to grow in an appreciation of the place of the teacher in the remaking of society, in an understanding of life in its varied aspects, in a consciousness of existing social prob-

lems, and in the vision of a reconstructed social order. The development of a rich scholarship and of a cultural background which includes the major fields of human activity, must be, therefore, an essential part of the program.

(2) The changing social and economic order points to a program which is directed not merely to the acquisition of subjectmatter, but toward those basic ideas which make possible an intelligent adjustment to new situations. It means the mastery of basic principles underlying the major fields which gives power to apply principles to unsolved and new situations. Leadership in a democratic social order rests fundamentally upon creative ability, independence of thinking and resourcefulness in handling problems which today can be seen only remotely.

(3) As such leadership can be cultivated only if the teacher-student is permitted to develop ability in independent thinking, originality, and resourcefulness in meeting problems, the activities will be planned in a manner to develop the student thru his own initiative and self-directed activity.

(4) Social progress is conceived to emphasize (a) respect for the individual with reference to the good of the social group, (b) recognition of the functional leadership of the expert, and (c) the need for a program based upon cooperative planning. To this end, the program of New College is *individual* and *integrated*. It is individual in that freedom is provided for the student to explore and to work in those areas of particular interest and need; individual in that no two students pursue exactly the same curriculum. It is integrated in that each experience is seen in relationship to other experiences, all directed toward selected common goals. Both freedom to work individually and power to utilize the results of experiences are contingent upon thoroness of scholarship and breadth of culture.

It is hoped that from such experiences the student may become a teacher who thru his scholarship interprets conditions intelligently and participates in all activities with sympathetic understanding.

While each student will pursue an essentially individual curriculum, the general pattern which follows has been set up as a basis of guidance.

A. 1. Proceeding on the conviction that individual development takes place best when all efforts are impelled by the dynamic force of clear purposes, the program of study is built around important problems and issues determined by an analysis of situations which confront and demand solution of each individual. To help the student see these problems and the various aspects of his work at New College in their innate relationship, the entire experience of the student will fall in four separate, altho closely related, areas or divisions: *human relationships* as expressed in social, economic, industrial, and political life; *science and invention*, particularly with reference to the influence of natural and environmental forces on life; *aesthetics* with special reference to the expression of contemporary thought thru pictorial arts, the plastic arts, the musical arts, and the art of letters; and *philosophy*, under which *religion*, *ethics*, *logic*, and *education* will receive consideration as the expression of man's efforts to determine ultimate values. Each of these divisions will be headed by a seminar which will guide the student in the given field thruout the entire college course. The student is expected to be adequately acquainted with each of these general areas, regardless of his major interest. The amount of study in any one field will depend on the student's individual needs and interests.

2. Problems cutting across all of the fields will be carried forward thru discussion and study in an integrating seminar, known as the *central* or *education seminar*, which will develop unity in the student's thinking about these issues with reference to the problems of education. Continuing thruout the period of the student's study in New College, this seminar serves first as an orienting and problem-raising discussion group. From it those phases of a problem pertinent to any general division

suggested are referred to the divisional seminars which are developed around large issues in the major fields of human endeavor. The findings of study in the several divisional seminars and in related courses will in turn be referred back to the central seminar for integration. It is the purpose of both the central and the divisional seminars to help the student become increasingly sensitive to vital issues, to help him define problems clearly, and to lay plans for their solution. As used in New College, the term "seminar" refers to a group of students and faculty members engaged in study and investigation and in the exposition of findings and results thru lectures, reports, discussions, and the like. The seminar adjourns when plans have been made and study can be carried forward with more profit individually, in small groups, or in service courses. From time to time the seminar is convened for the purpose of pooling results, checking progress on the solution of problems, raising new problems, and making new plans. The seminars are thus the constant integrating factor in the curriculum.

Not only do the seminars contribute to the integration of experience, but they acquaint the student with major and persistent problems and lead him into the technic of critical thinking and of group discussion.

B. Thru the major seminars the student enters upon those phases of work most important for him in the light of his past experience and of future plans and interests. Such study *evolves from* the seminar discussions, and *involves* directed *readings*, *conferences* with staff members, *independent study*, and attendance in whole or in part upon selected courses. These courses, known as *service courses*, offer opportunity for intensive work on group or individual problems thru lectures, laboratory study, and group discussions. They aim to provide such knowledge and skill as analysis of the student's general and professional needs shows to be necessary. The systematic service courses may not differ materially from systematic courses generally taken, but the point of emphasis in their pursuit becomes the significant factor. Facts of human knowledge are not learned in unrelated courses, but courses are pursued because of the contributions they make to the solution of fundamental problems confronting a young student. Many of the service courses are given by the faculty of New College, but it often becomes the responsibility of the faculty concerned to direct the student to those courses in any other department of the University which will best fulfill his needs.

C. The first two years of work in seminars, in courses, and independent study are directed toward the development of sound scholarship and a professional and cultural background which give a cross-section of the major areas of human activity. These years will be used to determine the special field of educational work for which the student is best fitted.

The last years will especially emphasize the further development of rich professional materials in the four general areas of study necessary for a teacher's preparation, and the further acquaintance with the varied aspects of education thru continued observation, participation, and practise teaching. During the later years in college the student will major in one of the three general fields: nursery school-kindergarten, elementary, or secondary teaching. For the present, students interested in secondary teaching may elect preparation in the fields of the social sciences; the natural and physical sciences; health and physical education; language and literature in English, Latin, French, German, and Italian; mathematics; art; music; and home economics. The entire program is directed toward the professionalization of the student's experience. In addition to the above-named contacts with teaching, each student will be required to serve for a period in practical field work under supervision of New College as an interne in a public or private school. This period of internship is the final step in the integration of theory and practise.

D. While the first years of work will usually fall in the same areas of study for all students, differentiation is made for each student as the case demands. This

differentiation applies to the amount of work and to special phases of work to be investigated in the field in question. The work is differentiated according to the needs and interests of the individual student as evidenced by the background which the student brings to New College (as measured by admission data, interviews, and placement tests) and by the demands of the position for which the student wishes to prepare.

A common background of broad acquaintance with the major fields of human knowledge should be part of the equipment of all teachers. As has been pointed out, this contact with the major fields should be such that the student (1) gains impetus for the continued exploration of these fields, (2) sees interrelationships and brings about a synthesis of knowledge, and (3) sees the possible values for professional use. It is further held that the work of the elementary teacher calls for a broad background over a wide range of fields, while that of the secondary teacher requires, in addition to the common core, a more intensive specialization in two or more areas. It is recommended, however, that the elementary teacher carry on intensive study in at least one area of special interest.

E. 1. The curriculum is planned to recognize that the "out-of-school" experiences of the student form as important a part of his curriculum as those for which the school usually assumes direct responsibility, and accordingly the student's personal and social life including those experiences commonly known as "extracurricular" is an integral part of the curriculum.

2. The curriculum is also planned to recognize that education is brought about best thru a wide variety of experiences. Accordingly, the contacts with the major fields of human endeavor and their integration with problems of modern life will be made possible thru intimate association of student and staff, travel and foreign study, a period in some industrial pursuit, a program of social education including some form of social welfare work, definite opportunities for student social life, and finally the use of libraries, museums, and the many other facilities for general culture and development so abundant in New York and in the other centers in which the students pursue their education.

F. The program of study continues, with provisions for vacations, thruout most of the calendar year.

Thruout the preceding discussion, emphasis is placed upon the integration of experience. While the seminars, the carefully planned courses, and a well-developed system of records are overt means of integration, the student is the real integration agent. Integration is something within the individual, something which takes place when his life is animated by purpose and when he has the ability to focus his experiences on that purpose. Therefore, effort is made continuously to help the student develop worthier purposes, to encourage him to plan over increasing spans of time, and to have him acquire the knowledge and skill necessary to achieve his goals. Rather than place emphasis upon the mere knowledge of cultural materials, New College is concerned with the use of these materials in a constructive way. To this end the method of work followed is not only made to provide for each student's progress at a rate commensurate with his interests and abilities, but is also directed toward individual growth in resourcefulness and in power in dealing with problems of individual and social living. Accordingly, less emphasis is placed upon the usual lecture form of college instruction. More emphasis is put upon discussion, directed readings, practical and seminars for intensive study of problems, general lectures, and field work.

This emphasis upon study suggests two other phases of the method of university study. The first is emphasis upon the use of the library as a laboratory; the second, the close and intimate contact of mind with mind—the contact of the spirit of the teacher with growing enthusiasm of the student. Directed readings and conferences with staff members give opportunity for the student to enter upon those phases of work most important for him in the light of his past experiences, future plans, and interests.

For most students there is an approximately equal division of the work among (1) practica and seminars in the major sciences, (2) class lectures and discussions, (3) independent study (conferences and directed readings), (4) professional, social, and cultural activities, including industrial employment, foreign travel, social work, trips and excursions, and (5) practical teaching experiences. The exact division of the student's time among the several types of activities and the nature of the problems to be taken up must, however, be conditioned always by the student's individual needs and abilities.

The period of study varies according to the ability of the individual student, according to the field in which he wishes to specialize, and according to the relation which his background bears to the demands of his chosen field. In general, the program requires from three to five calendar years in residence, followed by a probationary period in the field, the interne year, as a temporary member of the staff of a cooperating public-school system or private school under the supervision of members of the College.

The year is made up of three sessions of sixteen weeks each, with a vacation of a month and the usual holidays. Since graduation does not depend upon the number of months or hours spent in class, but rather upon the student's ability, demonstrated by the final comprehensive examination, breaks in continuity of study are so provided as to protect the student's physical and mental health.

What are the points of probable significance? In addition to the two already stated, the following seem worthy of emphasis:

1. The College is under no obligation to grant any degree until the student is really well-trained and has proved it. In rejecting the traditional semester hour or point credit scheme, it will be impossible to gain a degree merely by the accumulation of hours, quality points, or any other mathematical device.

2. Each student is allowed to pursue an individual program depending upon the needs of his own case without regard to points, departmental rules.

3. The examination will provide a real incentive and a real test of scholarship and teaching ability.

4. A vast increase of time devoted to participation and practise beyond the present formal and unsatisfactory requirements.

5. Intimate acquaintance with the problems of modern life by participation in various activities.

6. Emphasis upon academic freedom and independent thought.

7. Experimentation with regard to the point of beginning and amount of professionalization.

8. Character and social requirements.

CURRICULUM RECONSTRUCTION IN THE TEACHERS COLLEGE

C. H. FISHER, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, BELLINGHAM, WASH.

When President Brown invited me to take a part in this program he gave me the definite assignment of discussing curriculum reconstruction at Bellingham, Washington. Consequently, I am going to confine myself to the making of a new trail in the Pacific Northwest.

First of all I must give you a background for what we have done, in the requirements for teachers as set up by the state. We have a distinct division of labor for the preparation of teachers, with which I am fully in accord and I would resist any attempt to change the present plan because I believe it fits the situation in our state. The state college and the state university prepare the teachers for the high school and the normal schools prepare the teachers for the elementary school. The preparation of teachers for the junior high school is an overlapping field for all institutions. Graduates of the state university must spend a year at our schools to be certified to teach in the elementary field (at the present time we have about fifteen university graduates who are spending a year with us to prepare for the elementary field) and graduates from four-year courses in our schools must spend a year at the university to be certified to teach in the high-school field. The minimum requirement for elementary teachers is three years and the minimum requirement for high-school teachers is five years.

In addition to the minimum requirements of three and five years we have an additional requirement of one quarter's work for the life certificate. This additional quarter can be gotten only after one year's experience and most students have two years' experience due largely to the fact that three years' successful experience are required for the life certificate. By requiring an additional quarter's work following experience we have learned much as to the value of experience in teacher preparation. At the next meeting of the state board of education we are going to abolish the life certificate, which is a menace any time, and especially at this time of economic crisis. Many old teachers who are holders of life certificates have crowded out our more capable and better prepared young teachers.

After September of this year all original certificates will be probationary certificates. Probationary certificates will be valid for a period of three years. What we shall call a regular certificate will be valid for five years. A regular certificate may be secured by two years' successful teaching on a probationary certificate plus an additional quarter's work. Regular certificates will be renewed upon the basis of successful teaching experience plus an additional quarter's work.

When students have completed a four-year curriculum and met all other requirements set up by the faculty they are granted the degree of Bachelor of Arts in Education. This degree was carefully chosen because it expresses our point of view regarding the organization of curriculums for teachers of the elementary school and the junior high school. Were we preparing high-school teachers I would say that the same point of view would prevail. When

we change the name of our normal schools, which will be done in due time, I am hoping that we shall use the term "college of education" because such a name fits adequately what we are aiming to do. The point of view, briefly expressed, is a background of liberal education plus technical preparation for educational work. I purposely avoid the term "liberal arts" because I do not wish to borrow from the traditional liberal arts college.

Thruout this discussion it is necessary to keep in mind that most of our students will remain in school for three consecutive years since they can get a certificate for three years' work. Many of them will return during the summer quarter to complete work for a degree. All of them will have to return after a few years if they desire to keep up their certification. We believe that three years' basic preparation plus experience plus further preparation will make better teachers than four years' consecutive attendance without the actual responsibility of teaching in the field.

In the fall of 1924 we introduced new curriculums which represented a complete reorganization on the basis of combining liberal education and technical preparation. These beginnings of reorganization were with minimum two-year curriculums. Gradually we have expanded our ideas with enlarged curriculums due to the increased requirements for teaching that have been set up by the state. Within a period of seven years I believe we demonstrated beyond any doubt that even two-year curriculums need not be devoted entirely to mere training. On the other hand our experience showed that almost half of a two-year curriculum could be devoted to basic education and the other half to technical training. With the present plan of requiring a minimum preparation of three years and many students planning to complete four years of work, we have much more flexibility to do what we started out to do in 1924.

Today the whole of the freshman year is a foundation year of liberal education. The backbone of the work for freshmen is an orientation course in contemporary civilization. This course comprises two-thirds of the freshman year or thirty-two quarter-hour credits. The course is a composite course of four parts consisting of physical and biological sciences, social sciences, literature, and fine arts. Were our students remaining in school four consecutive years as they do in many of the teachers colleges in preparation for high-school teaching, I would expand this orientation course into the sophomore year and require at least half again as much time.

It is only fair to say that we got the first inspiration for our plan from the course offered at Columbia College entitled Introduction to Contemporary Civilization. Today we get our inspiration from the reorganization at the University of Chicago. Were I organizing four-year curriculums today in a teachers college I would want to approximate the work of the first two years of the Chicago plan. I believe that the reorganization at the University of Chicago is the most significant change that has happened in years in higher education in this country, and it seems to me to have important implications for a reorganization of curriculums in teachers colleges. I believe that the most important implication for us in the Chicago reorganization is that we must give our students a foundation in edu-

cation and culture. Nowhere do I find this point of view expressed better than in a statement of principles made by Dean Haggerty before this Association in 1929.

The first of such principles is that a teacher may claim by personal right the privilege of being an educated person. It is only the merest justice that the teacher shall be so trained as to be at home in the ever-advancing culture of our time, alert to the widely growing world of knowledge, and the fit companion of cultivated men and women. More than this, society has the right to expect a teacher to be, if not the best, at least a dependable representative of modern culture in the community in which he lives and works. He is society's agent for transmitting this culture in the form of organized knowledge to children and youth. It is his business to direct and quicken the interests of young people, and to make them sensitive to the world of ideas, not the dead forms of knowledge to be found in books, but the living world of ideas and action throbbing all about them, growing and changing in a thousand ways, and issuing in works of science, history, poetry, pictures, music, and thrilling tales. It is the business of our colleges to equip for this very exacting mission.

All of this means that our teachers colleges must be transformed in some cases from training schools for teachers and in other cases from traditional liberal arts colleges with an appendage of teacher training into real educational institutions with a definite program to prepare teachers for the needs of our civilization.

I shall now return to the orientation course in contemporary civilization for further consideration as to organization, content, and purpose. This general course in its four phases is offered under five sub-titles in five different departments of Science, Social Science, English, Art, and Music. The sub-titles of the course are Science and Civilization, History of Civilization, General Literature, Introduction to Art, and How To Listen to Music. The content and purpose of the course is unified thru meetings of all instructors involved in any part of the course. The main responsibility for unification is left to the curriculum committee of the faculty that has the responsibility for all phases of the curriculums. The responsibility for unification is also shared by the chairmen of the departments.

I might say that the chief difficulty in accomplishing the purposes of such a course is with academic instructors of physics, chemistry, biology, history, and English and American literature, who think that no courses can have any value unless they bear the conventional labels and use the stereotyped approach. I have seen some happy exceptions among older teachers who found in the new approach a real challenge and a stimulating means of growth. But it is my experience that this type of course must depend for its success largely upon young, capable, ambitious and open-minded teachers who are not spoiled by tradition and habit.

In all phases of the orientation course stress is laid not on detailed knowledge of subjectmatter but on the underlying ideas that serve the purposes of interpretation and understanding. For instance, in the teaching of general literature no attempt is made to follow the chronological point of view. No attempt is made to touch upon all important literary periods. Confronted with a field immeasurably large, a choice must be based on the in-

terpretative value of material rather than on its purely literary merits. Literature in terms of this course is thought of as an expression of the human spirit. From this standpoint many pieces of literature of undeniable merit are ignored because they offer no clues to an understanding of the intellectual world of today. The emphasis is placed upon the broadly human, social, and philosophical aspects of literature rather than the esthetic and literary phases.

The time-honored course in English composition is no longer required of all freshmen. Students are given tests to find out their needs in written English and upon the basis of their needs they are advised what to do to make improvement in their written English up to an acceptable standard. Requirements of the English department must be satisfied before students are admitted to the training school.

One aspect of the work of the freshman year that especially appeals to me is that students coming from high schools are immediately aware of an entirely new approach. That is very definite and very pronounced. I have worked with this thing for eight or nine years and I know what a change it makes to these young people coming from the high school—a change that is infinitely worthwhile. It is not just some of the same old grind they got in the high school. They are provoked to do some real thinking about the world in which they live, they become conscious of many problems of our civilization, and they are stimulated with intellectual curiosity to pursue further courses along the lines of their interests. In the sophomore, junior, and senior years students are allowed to elect courses along the lines of their interests, provided these courses are in sequence and are approved by an adviser. It seems to me that the principle of individual differences of ability and interest is so well accepted that it is a serious mistake not to give students some freedom of choice in courses.

Other courses of the freshman year that may properly be called orientation courses are Principles of Geography, Human Relations, and Library Instruction. The course in geography is a basic course to help a student's thinking in social science. The course in human relations is designed to orient students into the life and standards of the school, and the course in library instruction is meant to orient students in the tools and technics of intellectual work. A library building completed in 1928 was planned with the idea of intensive library instruction for the student's immediate needs in the curriculum and for his future needs as a teacher. A student begins his library experience with traditional textbook substitutes and assignments in certain library books. In the latter part of the freshman year and thruout the remainder of his course, the student is placed upon his own initiative. Instead of having lists of books selected by the faculty in the reserve book room, he is encouraged to work with a more advanced technic in a general reading room. This room seats three hundred students and contains twenty thousand books on open shelves which are selected from the entire library as being most effective and valuable for the curriculum and which are most useful for the discussions and problems that

grow out of class work. I maintain that without the ability to use the technic of independent study no student can have intellectual growth and certainly cannot become an effective teacher for present needs.

I want to elaborate a little more upon the use of elective courses in the three years following the freshman year. The use of majors and minors has been discarded because they are a carry over from the college and university that we believe has no place in our plan. Majors and minors emphasize intensive specialization that is not called for in the elementary school and the junior high school and I doubt very much if it is called for in the high school. What we need in all teachers in the public schools is breadth of interests and knowledge instead of a narrow specialization that is demanded by the college and the university. In the junior high-school curriculum students are required to have a major and a minor teaching field and these fields are defined rather broadly, such as science and social science. The various departments outline the courses they will accept for a major teaching field and a minor teaching field.

In the primary and the intermediate curriculums, there is no necessity for major and minor teaching fields. The only requirement placed upon students is that they must elect courses in sequence for not less than three quarters ranging from nine to fifteen quarter-hour credits. This plan makes it possible for students to have three to five groups of courses in sequence. There is no restriction as to whether these sequences of courses shall be in the field of liberal education or technical education.

To prepare themselves for a certain type of teaching students are required to select a curriculum. In each curriculum there are definite requirements of subjectmatter courses and education courses arranged in sequence. Subjectmatter courses are required in art, music, physical education, health education, industrial arts, children's literature, mathematics, social science, and science. Science for elementary school, which is frequently a much neglected subject, is a required course in the sophomore year and is given two double periods a week thru three quarters in order to take advantage of the seasonal aspect of materials. The double periods permit excursions for gathering materials and laboratory work. At this point I want to take a little time to pay tribute to the work of Professor Frederick G. Bonser in the field of industrial arts. For some time we have required courses in industrial arts for elementary teachers and junior high-school teachers. Not only are these good materials courses but we have found that the philosophy of education conveyed thru the concreteness of the industrial arts material is most effective in impressing upon students our modern conception of education for boys and girls in American schools.

In our plan, these courses that I have just enumerated are materials and content courses and not methods courses and are given from the point of view of the requirements of the state courses of study for the elementary school and the junior high school. The responsibility for the technic of teaching rests upon the training school. Teachers of some departments, particularly in the special subjects, cooperate with the training school in

making effective the technic of teaching. In my experience I have found no other way to make the technic of teaching really function.

In psychology and education, students are required to take these courses in the following sequence—Educational Psychology, a preliminary course in Observation and Technic, Group Teaching and Educational Measurements must be taken during the same quarter, a course in Public-School System, a course in the Philosophy of Education which is designed to bring together all their experiences in some systematic thinking regarding the education of American boys and girls, then there follows a course in the Individual Differences of Children, the students working with individual children under supervision, and finally a second experience in group teaching.

Teachers colleges will have to give increasing attention to the selection and elimination of students. We have devised a process of selection and elimination of students that we believe fits our situation. Under the laws of the state we must admit students from accredited high schools. I have no desire to change this provision in the law. The work of the freshman year provides plenty of intellectual meat and becomes a real hurdle to jump over. Students are required to pass a battery of achievement tests and they must satisfy the requirements of the departments of English, Speech, and Health. These various tests together with a general scholarship rating constitute the entrance requirements to the training school. There is one entrance requirement to the institution and another and more exacting entrance requirement to the training school. The responsibility for gaining admission to the training school is placed squarely upon the student. If for any reason a student cannot be admitted to the training school and he satisfies the scholarship standards of the school, he may remain to complete one or two years of liberal education.

We have started to work on plans for a comprehensive examination on the courses in the freshman and sophomore years that are common to all curriculums. Such a comprehensive examination would constitute a further test for those who are allowed to prepare for teaching. It is part of our plan to require a comprehensive examination near the end of the senior year for those who are candidates for a degree.

Before I bring this paper to a close I must refer to what I believe is one of the greatest means at our disposal for reinforcing curriculums that provide for both liberal education and technical education. I refer to the school assembly. In our school we have two assemblies a week lasting one hour from eleven to twelve o'clock in the morning. We have budgeted generously of our funds to provide the best talent available in music, dramatics, and lectures. In connection with lectures it has become the custom to conduct a forum in which students and faculty participate. I take a lot of pride in the fact that for ten years we have spent more money for these cultural advantages than we have on athletics, and at the same time we have not neglected athletics.

This then is a new trail we have tried to build thru the mountains and forests of traditional theory and practise in the Pacific Northwest.

INTEGRATED PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES AS THE BASIS FOR LEARNING AND AS A SUBSTITUTE FOR FORMAL COURSES IN EDUCATION

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The way of training teachers that I shall describe has been called an experiment. It is hardly accurate to dignify it by that term. In the scientific sense of a process in which all the factors except one are eliminated or controlled and the results of the other factors are measured, it is not an experiment. We have eliminated nothing and controlled little. I shall call it a plan of teacher training. It may be graphically described by the term "the experience method" for the professional education of teachers.

Possibly it will help to explain the plan by describing its origin. This plan originated first of all in our general philosophy of education. In the development of our campus school, we had accepted that philosophy of education which maintains that the curriculum of the elementary school should consist of a series of lifelike experiences out of which all that knowledge and information, all that body of skills known as the tool subjects, and all those attitudes that a child in the elementary school is supposed to develop, should come as an outgrowth. For several years a small group of our teachers had been developing toward the idea that the professional part of the curriculum for the training of teachers should consist of a series of lifelike experiences out of which, as a byproduct, should come the philosophy and principles of education, the skills, the technics and the understanding of child study that a teacher should have. In 1926 the yearbook of the National Society concurred in our philosophy of the elementary school. It was this report that finally crystallized our resolution to attempt the experience plan of professional education.

In the second place, this experiment grew out of the dualism between professional theory and professional practise. I attended my first conference as president of a teachers college in 1911, almost exactly twenty-two years ago. A large part of the program of that meeting was devoted to a discussion of various ways for the integration of theory and practise. I have seldom attended a meeting on teacher training in the twenty-two years that have intervened that this same topic has not been discussed at greater or less length. So far as I can see, we are no nearer its solution now than then. After various attempts to integrate theory and practise I came to the conclusion that the only way to integrate them is to integrate them, which could only be done by making theory an actual outgrowth of practise.

In the third place this plan developed from a conviction that the organized and abstracted technic courses that we have been accustomed to offer in the teachers colleges have little practical value in the later professional experiences of our students. This conviction had its origin in actual experience and investigation. Over a period of years it had been my custom at the beginning of each semester or term to hold a conference with those students who had been engaged in practise teaching during the previous semester or term. In these conferences I attempted to get a frank statement from the

students as to how much help they had received from their various courses in the teachers college—particularly from the technic courses. In general the testimony indicated that they had received very little help from these courses. The surprising thing was that they had received least help from those courses that we had considered best organized and best arranged. The amount of actual help that they had gotten from a technic course appeared to be almost exactly in an inverse proportion to the degree in which these courses had been organized and abstracted by the instructor. We have several technic teachers who have developed courses that have attracted considerable attention. In several cases publishers have considered putting them into book form. For logic of arrangement and perfection of organization, these courses are almost perfection, but when I came to make inquiry of students, I found that these courses had given the students little help. What was more startling was that the course from which the students seemed to have gained most help was a course given by a teacher who had been considered lazy and who had made no attempt whatever to organize the materials used in the course. This was a course in the teaching of science, and about all the instructor had done was to take groups of students into the training school. At times he would demonstrate with the children. At other times he would set some student-teacher to work on a unit with the children. In some cases he would distribute the students in his class, putting each one in charge of a unit of work being carried on by the children. There seemed to be little organization and arrangement, but the students who had had this course were almost unanimous in reporting that they had received great help in their practise teaching which came later.

In brief the plan was to conduct groups of students thru a series of selected professional experiences over a period of one year, out of which as an outgrowth under proper guidance and direction was to come all of the knowledge, the skills, and the attitudes that a good teacher should have. It was decided to ask for volunteers in the divisions of kindergarten-primary and elementary education, but only those were asked to volunteer who could meet two general conditions. In the first place, they must have had two years of general education. This immediately eliminated from the experiment all students enrolled in the two-year curriculums, which were at that time in operation at Milwaukee. The reason for this general condition is obvious. We did not want to graduate any teacher who had not had two years of general education. Furthermore, it was felt that a student with less training would not be able to grasp the significance of the problems that were bound to arise. The second condition was that no one should be allowed to volunteer for the experiment who had any professional courses whatever, with the exception of general psychology. The reason for this condition is also obvious. In the first place, it was considered that professional courses of any type might produce in the minds of these students certain set opinions and prejudices that might militate against the success of the experiment. In the second place, since all the professional training was to come as an outgrowth of experiences, there would obviously be duplication

and hence loss of credit, and since credits are one of the main objectives of education we did not feel that we could subject those who were asked to volunteer to loss of credit. Because of these two limitations it was impossible to find more than a few students in each division who could meet the conditions. Over a period of years then the plan was carried on with a very small number of students—never more than three or four, from each of the two divisions included in the plan. The plan was put into operation February 1, 1928. I believe that during the first semester there were six students altogether working under the plan, three from the kindergarten-primary division and three from the elementary division. These students were distributed among the various rooms in the training school—each student being assigned to one room and the training teacher in charge of that room was made responsible for the professional education of the student assigned to her room. One of the technic teachers was assigned to aid each training teacher. The general practise was that one technic teacher in each division was assigned to help all the training teachers who had students working under this plan. There were several reasons for assigning a technic teacher to help the training teachers. The principal reason was that it was not considered desirable to confine the experiences of a student to any one room. For example, if a student in the kindergarten-primary division had been assigned to grade two and happened to become interested in child psychology or the emotional adaptations of children, it might be considered advisable to assign her to observation in the nursery school. Furthermore, we were anxious to develop in the technic teachers those scientific attitudes and technics that would be necessary in carrying out the plan.

Students entering the plan were told that they would have no regular schedule whatever. They were advised that they need enrol in no organized courses unless they wanted to, but it was also understood that if they developed interests in any particular field which were being covered by courses then being offered, they could enter the course for as long as it was considered valuable for them to do so. They were also told that their day's work should be devoted in varying proportions to observation in the training school, reading in the library and conferences with their teachers. It was suggested that they should keep notebooks in which they would record questions that might arise, observations that seemed valuable and questions that they wished to raise later in conference. They were also asked to keep records of how they spent their time, what books they read, and what ideas and concepts they developed during any part of their experiences.

The first thing aimed at by the guiding teachers was to arouse questions and problems in the minds of the students and it was found that almost always the first problems that were raised were in the field of philosophy of education. Inasmuch as the campus school is called a progressive or activity school, and hence work is considerably different than in the formal

EXHIBIT A

ATTENTION

Mary R. Miles

Second Grade

What Happened	Leading Question	Corollary Questions	How I am solving this question				Conclusion
			Reference	Conference	Experience	Observation	
Leading out of the subject of reading.	What means could be taken to help children learn to attend?	1. What kinds of attention are there?	Dewey - <i>Interest and Effort</i> .	Oct. 11. There are three: voluntary, involuntary, non-voluntary.			1. The voluntary is, I will to do it. The involuntary is spontaneous. The non-voluntary is interest conditioned in the mind. 2. Children lack power of concentration. Their physical make-up is different, i.e., it is not fully developed as yet. Children are interested in the objective. Experiences are few so they do not work on the subjective viewpoint. 3. One can attend to but one thing at a time. Many people can do two or three things from habit but they are thinking about but one at a time.
		2. Is there a difference between adult and child attention?	Norsworthy and Whitley Chapter on <i>Attention</i> .	Oct. 11. Nervous system characteristic of child.		Nancy could not talk while she worked; was always being attracted by those things which surrounded her.	
		3. Is one able to attend to two things at once?	Norsworthy and Whitley Chapter on <i>Attention</i> .				

EXHIBIT A (Continued)

DISCIPLINE

Charlotte Murphy

What Happened	Leading Questions	Corollary Questions	How I am solving this problem	Conclusions
Edward in the nursery school threw a record on the floor and broke it because he was not allowed to play it at the time. Miss McDowell made him sit on a chair while she explained to him why his action was wrong and then let him pick out another record and hand it to a practicalise teacher to play. Why did she allow him to play the second record? Why did she praise him when he handed the second one to the teacher?	I. How should a child be punished? II. How should he be rewarded? III. What do rewards and punishments represent in regard to learning?	1. What effect might too much praise have on other students? 2. What are the general causes of misbehavior? 3. What is a problem child? 4. What must the teacher know in order to correct problems of misbehavior? 5. What are the behavior trends or characteristics? 6. What is the origin of child's behavior trends? a. What are the objective conditions of attention? b. What are the subjective conditions? c. What are the forms of attention? d. What are the differences between adult's and child's attention?	<i>Conference:</i> 1. With Miss Holmes in reading group. 2. Miss Green's conference. <i>Bibliography:</i> 1. Pamphlets from Miss Holmes. 2. Blankton — <i>Child Guidance</i> . 3. Thoms— <i>Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child</i> . 4. Wickman— <i>Children's Behavior and Teacher's Attitudes</i> . 5. Kilpatrick— <i>Foundations of Methods</i> . 6. O'Shea— <i>The Child, Its Nature and Its Needs</i> .	I & II. Rules for punishments and rewards. (a) Rewards and penalties should be natural responses to the kind of behavior. (b) They should try to change the child's attitudes. (c) In giving rewards or penalties let the child know you are interested in him. (d) Be sure the child understands the reward or penalties. (e) Punishments involve pain and the pain should be greater than the enjoyment. (f) Punishments should be immediate, especially with young children. (g) Health habits should not be impaired. III. Punishments and rewards represent satisfaction and dissatisfaction in regard to the laws of learning which are: 1. The Law of Readiness. When a bond or stimulus is ready to act, the act gives satisfaction and not to act gives annoyance. When a bond is not ready to act, to be forced to act gives annoyance. 2. Law of Satisfaction and Annoyance: A modifiable bond is strengthened or weakened according as satisfaction or annoyance attends its exercise.

EXHIBIT B

<i>Student (A)</i>	Credits	Grade
Industrial Arts.....	2	C
Teaching Primary Reading.....	3	B
Child Psychology.....	3	A
Practise Teaching.....	5, 5	B, A
Educ. 331.....	3	B
Kgn-Primary Curriculum.....	3	B
Educational Measurements.....	2	B
Education 228.....	2	A
	—	
	28	
<i>Student (B)</i>		
Teaching Primary Subjects.....	3	B
Educ. 232 (Curriculum).....	3	A
Practise Teaching.....	10	A, B, C
Educational Measurements.....	2	C
Industrial Arts.....	2	B
Child Psychology.....	3	B
Teaching Primary Reading.....	3	C
	—	
	26	
<i>Student (C)</i>		
Educational Measurements.....	2	B
Philosophy of Education.....	3	A
Practise Teaching.....	10	B, A
Investigations in Teaching Social Science.....	2	B
Education 327a.....	3	A
Investigations in Arithmetic.....	2	B
Investigations in English.....	2	C
Education 313 (Curriculum).....	3	A
History of Education.....	3	B
	—	
	32	
<i>Student (D)</i>		
Teaching Reading.....	3	B
Educational Measurements.....	2	B
Curriculum Organization.....	3	A
Practise Teaching.....	10	B
Teaching Social Science.....	2	B
Teaching Arithmetic.....	2	C
Teaching English.....	2	B
Educational Psychology.....	3	C
Philosophy of Education.....	3	B
	—	
	31	

schools to which students had become accustomed, their first questions raised were considerations underlying the philosophy of our campus school. During the first three or four weeks students were encouraged in general to develop a philosophy of elementary education and when questions in this field were raised readings were assigned in such books as *School and Society*, *The Child and the Curriculum*, and *Democracy in Education* by John Dewey; *Schools of Tomorrow* by John and Evelyn Dewey; and *Child Centered Schools* by Rugg and Shumaker. Some time each day, every student in the plan was held for a conference of one-half hour or hour's length by the training teacher. Sometimes these conferences were conducted with the technic teacher, but in general it was found more valuable to have separate conferences with the training teacher and the technic teacher. At the end of three or four weeks, interests in some technic of teaching were developed—very often in reading or sometimes in arithmetic. It is recalled that one of the first students became interested in child hygiene, and, as a result, made a considerable study of the hygiene of the school child, in the course of which she visited the health department in Milwaukee, read many books, and consulted several doctors interested in and informed on the hygiene of the school child. In connection with arousing interests in problems in the minds of the students, a type of record has been used in some of the classrooms that has been considered very helpful. This type of record, of course, can only be used at the beginning during the initial stages of the experiment under the plan. To indicate the use of this record in arousing problems and developing interest in the minds of the students, a page is taken from the record of each of two girls whose experiences were being developed at that time in the second-grade room. These are shown in Exhibit A.

In asking students to volunteer for this plan, we were faced with the problem of credit. It was proposed to allocate to each student at the end of each semester 16 semester hours of credit in education—32 for the year. Since in all of our three- and four-year curriculums in the division of elementary education and kindergarten-primary education, each student is required to complete approximately 32 credits in education, the problem was not serious. For instance, it was proposed to allocate credits on the records under some such headings as follows:

Educational Psychology	3 credits
Curriculum Problems	3 “
Tests and Measurements	2 “
Technics of Teaching	8 “
Philosophy of Education	3 “
Mental Hygiene	3 “
Practise Teaching	10 “

It was understood that the amount of credit would vary according to the interests and work of the individual student. For example, one student might be given only two credits in philosophy of education while another student might be given three or possibly four. One student who had shown a great

deal of interest and progress in the field of mental hygiene might be given three credits, while another student who had worked in other fields might receive no credit in mental hygiene. In indicating the work in actual practise, the records of four students are given in Exhibit B.

On this small scale the plan was carried on until 1932. During that year the director of the kindergarten-primary division announced that the members of the staff of that division were ready to adopt the plan for all their students. Since the two-year curriculum had been discontinued in the kindergarten-primary and elementary divisions, it became perfectly practicable and possible to do so. It had been the custom to begin the professional training of our students in the first and second years of their enrolment in the college, and hence it was not possible to put the plan into full operation until the curriculums had been definitely re-arranged and students were available who had not had professional courses during the first two years in college, with the exception of general psychology.

In September, 1932, the kindergarten-primary division began training all of its students under this plan. In the elementary division the use of the plan is still optional. No pressure has been exerted upon the members of the staff to adopt it.

During the first semester of the present year, twenty-five students of the kindergarten-primary division were engaged in the experience plan—only twelve in the elementary division. At the end of the semester, three of the kindergarten-primary students were eliminated or withdrew and fourteen more students were ready to begin their training. No new students were started in the elementary division. During the present semester then there are twenty-two second semester kindergarten-primary students and fourteen first semester kindergarten-primary students, and twelve elementary students working under the plan. Since the two divisions have used somewhat different technics, each one will be described separately.

The twelve students in the elementary department were placed under the direct charge of a technic teacher, Dr. Neal Billings. They were distributed at the beginning of the year among the third, fourth, and seventh grades—four students in each grade. During the first six weeks the three training teachers and Dr. Billings met the twelve students together in a one-hour conference daily. After the first six weeks the students assigned to each room met their training teacher in conference for one hour every other day, and with Dr. Billings on alternate days. At the end of the first quarter an oral examination was given, more for the purpose of setting standards than for the purpose of testing achievement or mastery. A member of the theory staff gave them an oral examination in philosophy of education. Mr. Adams, director of the elementary division, examined them in the technics of teaching and Mrs. Slaughter, director of the exceptional education division, gave them an oral examination in mental hygiene and child study.

I have no report on the examination in the philosophy of education for this semester. The report on the examination in technics shows that ten

TABLE I. DISSATISFACTIONS EXPRESSED BY THE STUDENTS

Number Expressing	Criticism
4	Too few criticisms of work, leaving us uncertain about progress.
9	Too much time wasted waiting for conferences.
5	Too few individual conferences with critic teacher.
3	Objectives too big and general for us to go ahead.
5	Too little full responsible teaching.
3	Too little time for extracurriculum activities.
4	Loss of social contacts.
2	Too much repetitive observation.
2	Less systematic than regular work; feeling of being discouraged and swamped at times.
2	Lack of knowledge about progress in the work.
1	Too indefinite at the beginning of the year.
1	Too many interruptions to study time.
1	Despair and discouragement at times.
1	Less success in teaching than had been hoped.

TABLE II. SATISFACTIONS EXPRESSED BY STUDENTS

Number Expressing	Satisfactions
1	Overcoming fear of classroom.
1	Successful teaching.
1	Feeling that the work is practical and unneeded things are eliminated.
1	First nine weeks with Miss Birr well integrated, "felt myself growing."
1	"Inspiration from conferences with teachers."
3	Measurements—maximum obtained for minimum time.
2	Much more time for good reading.
2	Advice on best and most up-to-date books from critic teachers.
5	Opportunity to learn in a functional situation. (See No. 3 above.)
4	Helpfulness of critic teachers.
4	Freedom from a rigid schedule, "Can work on questions which we think serve our immediate needs."
1	Experience in greater number of subjects.
3	Informal method of working.
5	Intimacy with other girls in the group.
5	Consideration given student criticisms (sympathy, understanding, encouragement), freedom of expression.
1	Thrill of novel way of learning.
1	Forgetting somewhat the "importance" of grades.
2	More observation before actual teaching.
1	No final exams.
1	Close supervision—numerous check-ups.

passed and two failed; in fact, ten received a very satisfactory mark in technics. Two failed almost completely, altho Mr. Adams feels that they were not worse off than they would have been had they pursued regular courses in the technics of teaching. The examiner in mental hygiene criticized them for the lack of terminology. On the other hand, Dr. Billings criticized the examiner for over-emphasis on terminology.

About the end of the first quarter the twelve students in the elementary division were asked to evaluate the plan. The following standards were set up:

1. From the standpoint of philosophy of education
2. From the standpoint of teaching technics and methods
3. From the standpoint of personality development.

The results of the evaluation are shown in Table I, dissatisfactions expressed by the students, and Table II, satisfactions expressed by the students.

The various members of the staff who have been in contact with the elementary group in the plan were asked to evaluate the experiment.¹ Dr. Ayer, director of the Training School, stated:

Supervision has been too indefinite. Too much directed effort to develop uncertainty in the minds of the students. The students have been allowed to flounder too long. There has been too much attention to philosophy of education; too little attention to technics. Reading assignments have not been sufficiently definite.

On inquiry it was found that Dr. Billings, in order to avoid "spoon feeding" has purposely made the reading assignments rather indefinite; that is, students have not been told to read a certain authority on a certain topic. Instead a number of books of varying value have been assigned with the idea that the students should develop the power to select and evaluate professional readings. Dr. Billings said:

In my opinion, from the standpoint of critical analysis these people have grown immensely. It is true that they are still in an attitude of doubt on many fundamental problems. I consider that a healthy state for them to be in at this stage of the experiment. The students have worked harder than any other group of students that I have been in contact with in this college. They have given up most social contacts, which may be a drawback.

Mr. Adams, director of the Division of Elementary Education, stated:

The results of the oral examination were surprisingly good. In my opinion these students have developed exceptional professional enthusiasm, a great deal of pride in their work and an excellent morale. They showed a critical intelligence in evaluating technics.

Miss Coulter, third-grade critic teacher, made the following statement:

Strong students have shown exceptional growth; weak students have suffered from lack of guidance. It may be that they are no worse off than they would have been under the traditional method. Students in this group show a better grasp of the modern principles of education, better professional attitudes. They developed much better grasp of an activity type of curriculum and of child experiences. The good students do more than students under the traditional plan. Those lacking curiosity may take advantage of the freedom and soldier on the job. The greatest weakness at present is our own lack of technics of guidance. At the beginning of the year there was great uncertainty, which may have been fatal to timid students. Of the eight students who have been under my guidance this year, five proved to be exceptionally strong teachers—critical, professionally-minded, with a strong philosophy of education. The other three will make weak teachers but will not be worse off than if they had followed the traditional plan. I think we made a mistake in the indefiniteness of the professional reading assignments.

Miss Rothwell, fourth-grade critic teacher, said:

The eight students under my charge have shown great initiative, better grasp of philosophy of education and a better understanding of what it is all about. Some of them feel the lack of social contacts. They showed their critical attitude by asking me to teach a class according to some of their plans, which I had approved, so that they might criticize my execution of their plan. In my opinion students were teaching as well at the end of the semester as the traditional students do at the end of their

¹ These evaluations were made at the beginning of the second semester.

practise teaching. Better students do much more work than under the traditional plan; poorer students may shirk, I believe thoroly in the plan but it puts a great burden on the training teachers. The students in this group are much more alert and much more critical professionally than those under the traditional plan.

Since the eight students under the direction of Miss Rothwell will continue under the plan for another semester, her statement that they taught as well at the end of the first semester as the traditional student at the end of her training indicates either that these students were exceptional or that the plan has value.

As before indicated there are now thirty-six students in the kindergarten-primary division pursuing their professional work under the plan—twenty-two second semester and fourteen first semester students. At present they are distributed between two theory and technic teachers of the kindergarten-primary division—Miss Louise Alder, directing the professional education of eleven second semester students and seven first semester students; Miss Mary Holmes directing two groups, each containing the same number. These forty-six students are distributed among the nursery school, the four-year kindergarten, the five-year kindergarten, the two primary rooms, and the second-grade room—five rooms altogether.

Each theory teacher holds a one-hour conference on alternate days with each group. The training teacher also has a conference on alternate days with the students assigned to her room. This means that in the kindergarten-primary division every girl in the plan has one-hour daily conference, while at any one time, two teachers, a training teacher and a theory teacher, are directing the educational development of any one girl. The plan also included in the kindergarten-primary division the use of other technic teachers in developing certain units of work. For example, a group of girls may develop an interest in a unit in industrial arts, for instance, in clay work. These girls are directed to go to one of the teachers in industrial arts, say Miss Harbeck. In the industrial arts laboratory they develop the necessary knowledge of materials, skills, and technics to carry out this particular unit of work and then execute the unit in a room in the training school. The same plan is followed in other fields.

Miss Alder, the director of the kindergarten-primary division, who is a painstaking and thoro worker, had felt the lack of guidance in previous years in the carrying out of the plan. She had felt the danger of blind spots, altho I, myself, do not feel that this is a weakness of the plan. My own experience leads me to believe that it is all blind spots under the traditional method of training, hence I do not feel the danger under the plan. Furthermore, I have come to believe thoroly that certain professional experiences, completely worked out, understood, and made a part of the professional equipment of the teacher, will so broaden out that they will illuminate many blind spots in other fields.

The kindergarten-primary division has adopted a much closer schedule of conferences and directed experiences than has been put into operation in

the elementary division. For that reason the oral examination has not been used.

In connection with the arousing of the problems it might be interesting to state some of the questions that have been raised by various members of the groups early in their experiences under the plan. Several examples of these questions are quoted as follows:

(1) I have noticed in observation that there are certain adults whom all children and other adults listen to when they talk. I suppose that is personality. How can we develop that?

(2) In your discussion of Miss M's demonstration lesson on taxes you made the statement that Miss M's preparation for that lesson has been going on for years. We don't have much time to read other than that required in our courses. We usually read a newspaper but we seldom read a magazine. How can we keep up our reading and do our school work also?

(3) The children seem to know so much more about many things than we do. For instance, in aeroplanes the fifth graders seem to be almost authorities on them. Is it possible for student teachers to learn from children without children having contempt for their ignorance?

(4) Miss W. says that Letty lacks muscular coordination and that her mother is neurotic. I was impatient with Letty's actions until I had this information. May one inherit neurosis? I would like to know more about her to understand her.

(5) In studying the nervous child I read that a child could have his time so planned, especially after school, that he would have no free time. The author thought that was bad. I don't see why. I feel that this planned time would give such rich experiences they would have all kinds of things to do whenever they did have free time.

(6) I am reading the whole book of Zachry's (*Personality Adjustments of School Children*). I found it interesting. I want to ask about one thing. The author says that the relationship between student-teacher and supervisor should be the same as the relationship between teacher and pupil. Do you agree? But Zachry says that student-teachers are adolescents. Are we adolescents? If so how can there be that relationship?

(7) Inhibitions are very queer things. Today I wanted to ask if I could play the piano for the rhythms but couldn't. I seemed to be glued to my chair. I wanted to pull down the shade but couldn't. Is that because we have been told all our lives when to do things?

(8) I finished reading Rugg and Shumaker's *The Child Centered School*. The thing that bothered Rugg about the progressive school bothers me too. Isn't that true that teachers in the new schools take children's leads, such as Dutch life, and pay no attention to what has gone before or what is supposed to follow in other years?

(9) I found that none of the old Greek music has been preserved. In getting ready to work with children shall I use modern Greek music? (Discussion of what we know about Greek dance from records that were left, costumes showing the probable stateliness of the dance, and possibly other music.)

(10) Do you think arithmetic needs to be taught first and then find life situations or are you conscious of life situations and let whatever arithmetic may be included be taught and drilled on at that time?

(11) I have been reading Healey and want to ask several questions about his point of view and John Watson's. I cannot reconcile some of the things in psycho-analysis with the other things I have read. Have the psychiatrists a physiological explanation for the unconscious mind?

At one typical conference, May 9, the following questions were asked:

(12) Is the curriculum the same all over the United States? If not how can achievement tests be valid tests of what children have achieved? Shouldn't there be new achievement tests based on new ideals in education?

(13) What is the difference between religion and philosophy? Doesn't philosophy include religion and therefore a bigger term? Was Christ a philosopher? Is the word "Christian" not a good deal bigger than what the word itself implies? For example, should Gandhi be considered a Christian? Can you not draw the line between philosophy and religion? Isn't religion that part of philosophy bounded by creed? If we consider religion in the wider sense should it not be as all-inclusive as the word "philosophy"?

(14) I should like to know what dissatisfaction does to one. Does that make for growth or does it make for discouragement and discontent?

(15) I never realized that it actually hurts to think until I wrote my paper on the value of the experiment to me. How can one train oneself to think? I am reading Dimnet's *Art of Thinking* but I still do not think he is giving enough specific help. If it hurts to think, won't the dissatisfaction that comes from the hurt prevent one from practising thinking?

Miss Alder, director of kindergarten-primary education, stated:

I do not want to go back to the traditional method without further trial.

Miss Holmes, kindergarten-primary division, made the following comment:

This plan certainly does arouse the professional curiosity of the students. It leads them to see their own professional needs, particularly in the field of personality. One girl said, "I have found so many problems that I shall never be able to solve them."

Miss Holmes points out one weakness in the mechanics of the present plan in the fact that at the beginning of each semester, particularly in September, the training teachers are so busy with the children that they are compelled to neglect the student-teachers. Since the first semester student-teachers are entering the training school for the first time, this is serious, and, if weak students are allowed to flounder for the first week or two, it may be serious to their whole professional development. This indicates that it may be necessary to place the responsibility for raising problems and starting the professional growth of the students upon the technic teachers for the first week or two of the semester. Miss Holmes also states that in her opinion we have allowed students to waste time in the training school. This, of course, raises the whole question of how long students should be allowed to flounder in an atmosphere of uncertainty. One is reminded of the classical example of Louis Agassiz giving the student a fish to examine without any directions or suggestions as to what he might find. The report of this undirected experiment in the laboratory would lead to the hasty conclusion that Louis Agassiz allowed his students to waste time in aimless search. On the other hand, out of Louis Agassiz's laboratory went a half dozen of America's greatest scientists, including David Starr Jordan, Joseph Le Conte, Theodore Lyman, William Stimpson, and Henry James Clark.

Miss Holmes also points out that the closer organization used in the kindergarten-primary group last semester involves the danger of losing library research and school visitations. The closer schedule devised to

diminish the danger of the blind spots also diminishes responsibility and the increased freedom that permits students to visit other schools.

At the outset it was clearly stated that we do not consider this a controlled experiment. Whenever the plan is described to a group of teachers, some scientific-minded educator is sure to raise the question, why we have not used a controlled group and hence made it a really scientific experiment. The answer to that is simple. It would be entirely possible to select two groups—one an experimental group and one a control group, but there is no use in attempting to do this until we have developed scientific tests for determining mastery of the art of teaching. In the absence of such tests it would obviously be futile to attempt a controlled experiment. The only bases for comparing the two groups would be the opinions of supervisors and so-called experts. These opinions are available under the present plan and nothing would be gained by trying to carry two parallel groups to be evaluated and measured and checked by nothing more scientific than the opinion of so-called experts. The only test of any plan for teacher training today is whether or not it turns out a reasonably steady flow of professionally-minded, intellectually curious, and educationally critical people. That test can be applied only after a period of years.

It may be to the point to observe that all science has two stages, the so-called puddler stage and the later controlled stage. I think it is not untrue to observe that many of the vital discoveries in human progress have come from the puddler type of experimentation and no one can say that the science of education is sufficiently advanced to make it wholly beyond the puddler stage.

After four years of not too close observation of this plan, I am convinced that the experience method of professional education is based on a sound philosophy and is practicable from the standpoint of administration. I am further convinced that the failures that we have made in it are not inherent in the nature of the plan; they are rather due to our own lack of skill in administering it.

The point is always raised that this plan of education of teachers will require a large staff. Our experience does not indicate the validity of the charge. Plainly it throws a larger burden on the training teacher. On the other hand, it diminishes the burden on the technic staff. The problem of administration then simply involves increasing the staff in the training school and diminishing the staff in the department of theory, or of finding some way of redistributing the load. As an administrative problem this is entirely feasible.

The plan has the following advantages:

1. It wholly eliminates the dualism between educational theory and educational practise. When theory grows out of experience there ceases to be any dualism.
2. It takes advantage of professional interests; it makes the innate interest of the students the great lever in leading them to professional study and experimentation.
3. It leads students to see their professional lives, and the education of children as a whole.

4. It makes the professional education of the student a matter of growth, not a mere accumulation of skills and professional knowledge. It develops initiative and increases responsibility. It lessens the danger of "spoon feeding."
5. It helps students to develop a philosophy of education based on child experiences.
6. It increases in the minds of students the dignity of their own experiences.
7. It leads students to see their own professional needs—particularly in the field of personality.
8. It gives students the desire to make a beginning in developing an understanding of the need for mental and emotional adjustments among children.
9. It develops a critical professional attitude.
10. It keeps alive professional curiosity.

The dangers and difficulties of the experiment may be listed as follows:

1. It shifts the professional load on the staff and makes a necessary readjustment.
2. It leaves many dark spots in the professional life of students.
3. The students engaged in the plan become socially isolated from the rest of the college. On the other hand as the group grows the members of it are thrown into very close professional and social cooperation.
4. Because of the fact that it forces students wholly upon their responsibility, it probably will result in the complete elimination of weak students. This will probably not be an unmixed evil.
5. The great weakness of the plan at present is our lack of standards for measuring professional growth and professional mastery. The lack is, of course, no greater in this plan than in the traditional plans, but it is thrown more clearly into perspective.
6. As the plan develops we shall be faced with the danger of over-formalization. From what has happened in the kindergarten-primary division it is very evident that this plan is subject to over-formalization just as all other educational processes are open to the same danger.

WHAT NEW VIEWPOINTS IN EDUCATION JUSTIFY A REDIRECTION OF TEACHING?

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If I should interpret this topic literally, my speech would be very short, for the question can be answered by one word—none. But altho there are no new viewpoints, there are changess in emphasis among old points of view and a shifting of convictions and loyalties. There are also new data of a scientific nature which show the futility or limitations of certain points of view and the fundamental importance of others. As a result of changed emphases and fresh evidence, we have points of view which, while not strictly new, appear in different patterns and take on new or renewed significance.

The outstanding characteristic of educational philosophy in the present generation has been superficiality, fickleness, and instability. There has been too much appetite for new thrills and too little taste for a vigorous and painstaking attack on the persistent problems of education. We have been using weathervanes when we should have been using compasses; and the winds which pointed the vanes have not been sound policies and tested truths but emotionalized slogans and mere theories, untested either by ex-

periment or by critical thought. Permit me to use an illustration which I have used once before. I was brought, early in my professional career, into contact with the Froebelian kindergarten. I remember very well a talk before a kindergarten group in which I attempted to convince them, not of the futility of formal gifts, for even in the enthusiasm of youth I should not have hazarded that, but of the importance of enriching the experience of children thru direct contact with reality. Among my specific suggestions was a proposal that the children should set a hen. The suggestion was coldly taken. I suppose that if I could have found a hen who would have laid a spherical egg, I might have gotten that in as a gift. A similar idea seems to have appealed to others, however, and before long I had the pleasure of seeing hens setting in kindergartens and in primary grades. By that time, however, the hen was a *problem*. In a year or two she was a *project*. A few years ago she became an *activity*; and now she is either a *unit* or a *center of interest*. It is not my intention to defend the setting of a hen as a part of the kindergarten course of study, but if I had to build a defense for it, as I should be very willing to do, it would not be on the ground that a setting hen is a "*problem*," or a "*project*," or an "*activity*," or a "*unit*."

Thruout these years of shifting slogans, three fundamental problems have persisted: first, the problem of the appraisal and selection of social values as a basis for curriculum making; second, the problem of deciding what is appropriate for children at each stage in their development; and third, the discovery of effective ways of promoting growth and learning. Contributory to all of these has been the problem of finding more accurate instruments of measurement. Each of these problems is now being attacked from points of view which, altho not new in structure, are either new or renewed in emphasis and vigor. Since it is obviously impossible to discuss the implications of all these points of view for the redirection of teaching, I shall discuss one viewpoint which is intricately bound up with each of these three problems.

I shall put this viewpoint in the form of a proposition: We should face social reality, attempt to understand it, and be thoughtful about it. The importance of facing reality has been greatly stressed of late by some of the greatest of our social scientists, as well as by some of the most eminent psychologists. The antithesis to facing reality is to take refuge either in verbalism or in daydreaming and fantasy. I do not need to point out to this audience that it is no new thing to demand that we face reality, that we try to understand it, that we be thoughtful about it. This ideal has been in the catechism of teachers for many generations. That we are far from realizing this ideal, however, is shown clearly by the results of modern research, especially in reading, and the seriousness of our failure is shown by the records of the clinics of our psychopathic hospitals.

In the large majority of schools, conventional or "progressive" children do not face the realities of life directly. They face books *about* the realities of life. Most of these books are textbooks of a general and summary nature. There is now ample evidence that objective realities of life are not brought

to the children thru these books, and there are good reasons for believing that realities never can be learned from such textbooks as, with few exceptions, are now in use. Let me illustrate.

Think of the meanings that you would expect eighth grade pupils to get from the following sentences: "Since there were no matches in 1763, the most primitive way of starting a fire had to be used. A piece of very hard stone, called flint, was struck against a bit of steel. This produced a spark, which was caught in tinder, or in soft, dry cloth." This sentence was used by Dr. J. C. Dewey in connection with his investigation, *A Case Study of Reading Comprehension Difficulties in American History*. The essence of the meaning which the authors of these sentences probably wished to convey is that in colonial times fire was made in a certain specific and primitive fashion, known as the flint and steel method. The concepts expressed by these sentences unquestionably represent objective reality. Let us inquire now into the meanings which the reader obtains from these sentences and into the degree to which these meanings approach reality. Let us assume that these concepts are new to the reader. If appropriate meanings are to be obtained, they must either be reconstructed from those already inherent in the experience of the reader or, if his experience is too limited to make this possible, the necessary experience must be provided; otherwise the result is either verbalism or fictional concepts.

In the clause, "the most primitive way of starting a fire had to be used," "primitive" meant to various pupils: the only way, the easiest way, the most important way, the best way they could think of, the most used method, the usual way, the most dangerous way, and a new way.

Very interesting results were obtained from the tests on the two sentences describing the actual process of making fire with flint, steel, and tinder. In testing the ability of pupils to understand these sentences, Dewey used not only the typical true-false and multiple-choice tests, but also personal interviews in which the pupils were challenged by the actual objects mentioned in the sentences as well as by pictures of the process. Students were found who could not identify the necessary implements for making fire; and, even when the flint and steel were placed before them, could not show how to strike the steel against the flint to make a spark. In a picture test of four pictures representing this and other primitive methods of fire making, many students could not identify the flint-and-steel method.

It may be worthwhile to pause to ask what value can be given to fictional meanings. The following example is representative, I believe, of what happens all too frequently at every level from the primary grades thru college. Suppose that a student who has read these three sentences can say, when quizzed: "In early colonial times there were no matches, so that people had to use primitive methods to start a fire. Flint and steel were struck together, producing a spark which was caught in tinder. This started the fire." But suppose this individual thinks that "primitive" means "a most dangerous way"; that he has only such knowledge of flint as to enable him to know that it is a stone; that he has a definitely concrete but

erroneous knowledge of the phrase "a piece of steel"; that he has no concept of tinder except that it presumably burns easily; that he has an erroneous idea of the way the steel and flint are struck together to produce the spark; that he knows that the spark was caught in tinder but does not know how, that he knows how to kindle a fire but not in this fashion. What kind of meaning or knowledge does this constitute? It may be that, even with such limitations, such meanings are of some value; i. e., they might be used as a basis for building better meanings. They are nevertheless inexcusable, for they are unnecessary.

The results obtained from the various tests which were used in this experiment help to confirm the growing conviction that most true-false and multiple-choice tests are not adequate measures of the meanings which children do get or are expected to get from such reading as is required in school. In such tests a student may make a very high score on some item about which, as shown in more rigorous tests during personal interviews, he knows little or nothing. The objection which is commonly made to typical true-false and multiple-choice tests is that they test the ability to memorize, rather than the ability to think. It is becoming increasingly clear that they may test not even the understanding of facts, unless very carefully constructed. In order to secure more adequate tests of meanings, more emphasis is now being placed upon tests of ability to see implications and relationships, particularly those not explicitly pointed out in the material which is read. Such tests of relationships are more difficult than are the typical fact tests, which often can be correctly answered by verbal memory, with a minimum of understanding.

You may say that such evidence indicates that we need to do a better job of teaching reading; but the problem is not so simple as that. The shortcomings thus displayed are due to the limitations of language as an instrument for conveying thought and to our failure to recognize the fact that, because of these limitations, other means of giving and enriching experience must be found. That the problem is not peculiarly a reading problem is shown clearly in a brilliant study by Dr. William E. Young. He showed conclusively that the ability to understand what is read is closely related to the ability to understand what is heard, at least at the intermediate grade levels.

At each grade level the ability to understand what was heard was found to correlate highly with the ability to understand what was read, the correlations averaging above .80. This correlation is higher than that likely to be found between two silent reading tests chosen at random. For example, Mr. Current found the Thorndike-McCall Reading Test, Form 2, to correlate with certain other reading tests as follows: with Form 1 of the same test, .75; with Stanford, Form A, .70; with Haggerty, Form A, .67; with Monroe, Form 1, .61; with Courtis, Form 1, .42. It should be pointed out that the high correlations which Young found between reading tests may be explained in part by the fact that the subjectmatter which he presented orally was the same as that which was read. This is in contrast to the read-

ing tests, in which there are significant differences not only in the subject-matter of the tests, but also in the abilities which are tested. Among the more than two thousand subjects used in his experiment, Young found no child who was superior in the ability to understand what he heard and yet inferior in the ability to understand what he read, or vice versa.

The closeness of the relationship between hearing and reading is shown even more conclusively in his quartile comparisons. For example, in one section of the experiment, involving 104 pupils, the 26 pupils who constituted the highest fourth in ability to understand what was heard were distributed as follows with respect to their ability to understand what was read: 20 were in the highest fourth, 5 in the second fourth, 1 in the third fourth, and none in the lowest fourth. Of the 26 pupils who made up the lowest fourth in the ability to understand what was heard, 21 were also in the lowest fourth in the ability to understand what was read, 3 in the second lowest fourth, 2 in the third fourth, and none in the highest fourth.

Such data as are here reviewed, combined with those of other investigations of related problems, seem to indicate that many of the so-called reading disabilities may more properly be ascribed to language disabilities, and that, with the exception of a few special types of disabilities, very little improvement may be expected from formal drill unless, at the same time, provision is made for the enrichment of experience, the improvement of language abilities, and the habit of thoughtful reading.

As a subordinate problem, Young secured data which showed that the amount of meaning which is obtained from a single presentation, either oral or visual, is very small, and that this small amount is largely dissipated within a few weeks. These findings are in harmony with those of many other investigators in indicating that a single presentation is not sufficient to obtain the essential meanings from either oral or visual symbols, even when the symbols are closely associated with or potentially related to experiences from which the necessary meanings may be constructed. Moreover, the language ability of many children is so limited that no amount of re-reading or effort will enable them to obtain adequate meanings, unless in the meantime the essential basic experiences are provided and the grasp of the language symbols is improved.

As a result of the scientific study of this problem, two things have become increasingly clear: first, that much of the material which is now embodied in the course of study at the various grade levels is too hard. It is hard because it is too far removed from the concrete challenges of the child's present life. We have erred, borrowing from the phraseology of Charles Beard, in our attempt "to reduce the bewildering complexities of God's providence to a simple formulation for use in the kindergarten." Second, many of the most important realities which are clearly appropriate for children at the age, say, of third grade children cannot be learned from reading or from being told. They must be learned from direct experience. That we must face the realities and teach the essential truth about them is beyond

question. That our attempts to lead the child into objective reality are attended by serious shortcomings is a scientific fact.

We now come to a point of view which is neither universally accepted nor founded on scientific evidence, but which, nevertheless, has the support of a large number of distinguished social scientists. From their viewpoint we must not stop with the understanding of the realities of the world as it is; we must teach what the world should be and lead the child *to will* that what should be, must be. That this is indoctrination is clearly admitted—not thru blind emotional appeal, not thru the throttling of thoughtful inquiry, but nevertheless indoctrination. From this point of view we need more purpose, more design, in our teaching. We need to recognize that our present social difficulties are ethical as well as technological. And while ethical judgments may be based on evidence, they go far beyond any scientific data in their establishment of norms which are consistent with human rights and the highest aspirations of the human spirit. We shall learn realities, yes, but we shall make them, too.

What are the implications of all of this for the redirection of teaching practise? I shall attempt to point out a few of the most important.

First, we must have a course of study which more adequately reflects the reality of life, both in content and in organization. Dr. Rugg has just given you his view of how this is to be accomplished. I should not object to such a course of study, but, in my judgment, all useful ends can be reached by the reselection and reorganization of values within present subjects.

Second, textbooks, even those on activities, must be supplemented by more detailed references as well as by non-bookish experiences. We must find more problems outside the school and solve these problems there. More of the activities of life must be brought into the school. I would not be misunderstood by this last suggestion. I am not speaking in support of those so-called activities in which pupils are led to escape reality rather than to face it. I have had occasion during the past two years to make a rather thoro canvass of the printed literature dealing with what are termed activities. Most of them are a stench in the nostrils. Let me illustrate by describing how one school brought the realities of our present farm situation to the school.

The children constructed a farm in the room. The “activity” began when the boys discovered a couple of toy animals and made a pasture for them. “Very soon the children felt the need of a windmill and constructed a very intricate and interesting one by nailing laths to a square block, distending the lower part by bracing the laths with short sticks. A paper plate made a fine windmill.” A farmhouse was made and furnished, and vegetables were cut out of paper. A visit to a real farm made the children realize that they needed more animals, which were made out of clay. Then they cut out of paper all the things on the farm—buildings, animals, etc. They “chose drawing as a medium to express lovely thoughts and feelings about a farm”—for example, a picture of horses looking at the sunshine. “There was much dramatic impersonation of the animals on a farm. . . .” “The in-

creased skill in drawing, cutting, and woodwork also enabled the children to do bigger things for the holiday season."

I have chosen this example not because it is the worst I could find, but because it contains so many kinds of escapes from reality. I should not, however, give a horrible example without offsetting it with a good one. Sometime ago Lincoln, Nebraska, was threatened with the loss of all of its shade trees thru the ravages of the tussock moth. The school children of that city studied the problem with the aid of the professor of entomology of the University of Nebraska, planned a campaign, and saved the trees. They faced reality. They determined what should be, and they made that reality. I do not know how much of the course of study should be made up of non-bookish learning. I suspect that such learning should make up a larger proportion than is now found, even in experimental schools. But in any case our chief dependence, because of the size and limitations of schools, will probably have to be upon books—not the abbreviated textbooks of the present, but books which are rich in detail, illustrations, and vital interest.

At the two sessions of the National Society for the Study of Education there will be reported the yearbook on geography. Within the next few months there will be forthcoming the report of the Commission on Social Studies in the School. The type of teaching recommended in these two reports cannot be carried on with the limited equipment now found in our public schools.

It is futile to attempt to give children an adequate understanding of presentday life thru the sole means of textbook instruction, no matter what methods are used in studying the text. A curtailment of basic references, sometimes wrongly called supplementary, is one of the most discouraging aspects in the present enforced economy program. Such equipment was inadequate even at the height of prosperity.

All this leads to the conclusion that teachers colleges must accept even heavier responsibilities than in the past, for giving teachers a more adequate grasp of the aim and content of the course of study. If the class discussions are to be vital, the teacher must have an enormous fund of accurate knowledge and of fundamental scholarship, not only in order to discover whether or not the pupils are merely using words without meaning, but also in order to furnish essential data which the texts do not provide.

We cannot escape the requirements of scholarship by adopting new methods or new curriculums. Dr. Rugg has proposed a new synthesis of knowledge as a basis for the improvement of the curriculum. I should like to see such a synthesis made by some reputable group of scholars, or better yet, a number of syntheses made by a number of reputable groups. The important thing to keep in mind is that no such synthesis has been made, or is likely to be available during the professional life of the teachers now in training in your institutions. At least in the case of our elementary schools, one cannot assume that such a synthesis would dictate a course of study vastly different in broad outlines from the best that now exist. It seems very likely that we do not need new subjects or new divisions so much as the vitalizing and

reorganization of the subjects we now have. But whether we have a new synthesis or merely an enrichment and reorganization of our present subjects, teachers will need to have more fundamental knowledge and insight than they now possess. To determine what this knowledge and insight shall be, and to provide it in our teachers colleges, will be a difficult task, but it is a challenge which must be accepted.

WHAT DOES THE DOMINANT AMERICAN THEORY OF EDUCATION IMPLY FOR THE REDIRECTION OF THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS?

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The question that I have been asked to discuss grows out of a movement in education that has been gathering a good bit of acceleration in recent years—the movement to synthesize the subjectmatter in the various fields of knowledge and to make new groupings of educational materials. It has been exemplified by the organization of such courses as general science and general mathematics for the early years of the secondary school, and by the so-called fusion courses in the social studies. On the level of higher education, there has been a multiplication of survey courses, of which the best known type aims to cover the entire field of the natural sciences.

Going much further toward breaking down subjectmatter boundaries has been the theory that all of the necessary skills, facts, and principles should and could be learned as they are needed in the solution of problems. A variant of this theory is that which would take a center of interest, such as a poem that the pupils like, and follow out the “leads” suggested by the poem, thereby picking up painlessly various items of information. Still another is represented by the plan upon which a famous experimental school was operated nearly a generation ago. The work of one grade for an entire year, for example, was centered about the grocery store. I recall a visit that I made to this school almost twenty years ago. In one of the classrooms the pupils were working at something that looked to me like an arithmetic lesson. I remarked upon it to the principal, speaking of it as a class in arithmetic. He fired up at once: “I would have you know, sir, that arithmetic is not taught in this school.” In theory, neither arithmetic nor any other subject was taught.

All of these theories and many of the practises based upon them are very far from new, but in all probability they have never had so wide a vogue as they have today in American education, except in Russia where the work of the Soviet schools from the beginning was organized very largely on the basis of “complexes” or projects in which subjectmatter divisions as such seem to have been entirely eliminated. It is interesting to note that last August the Central Committee of the Communist Party directed the commissars of education in the several republics to “liquidate” what the decree refers to as “these perversions of the laboratory method” and to provide “sys-

tematic and sequential" instruction based on textbooks. Thus the most extensive and pervasive attempt ever made to replace logical organization with so-called psychological organization has reached what some persons will regard as, in more than one sense of the term, its logical conclusion.

In our country, however, the tendency is increasingly toward the system that the Soviets have abandoned after a ten-year trial. There is, indeed, in the very rapid extension of the so-called activity program a suggestion that our schools will go even further than did the Soviet schools. In a city of a half-million population the superintendent directed his teachers to organize an activity program. When asked why he did this he replied frankly that he had had to yield to political pressure. If this sort of thing keeps up we may expect to find our political platforms bristling with such words as psychological and logical organization, unit plans, activity programs, and the child-centered school. I am not at all certain, indeed, that it will be only the boundaries between subjects that will disappear. A prominent woman in our profession was heard to remark apropos of a proposal for organizing an activity program that she hoped that it would not be necessary to use the program as a series of pegs upon which to hang subjectmatter. For aught I know the American schools ten years hence may have no subjectmatter whatsoever in the curriculum.

However this may be, the training institutions cannot neglect the task of preparing teachers for the type of curriculum that seems now to be extending so rapidly—provided that a reversal of policy does not come here as in Russia. Most of the normal schools and teachers colleges have not been at all unmindful of this necessity. Their training schools have quite generally exemplified the theories and practises that are regarded as the most progressive and up-to-date. So far as I am informed, too, the courses in education tend to emphasize, and to provide a rationalized justification for, the doctrines that constitute our dominant educational theory. So far as the normal schools and teachers colleges are concerned, then, the weakness seems to lie in the subjectmatter fields. Because these are still departmentalized or compartmentalized, the student is not prepared to teach in schools where subject boundaries are disregarded. This, at least, is the conviction of some students of the problem, and these persons wish to see the courses on the collegiate level modified to fit the pattern which is now the vogue in the elementary schools. Some of those who hold to the theory that learning tasks should not be imposed upon children but should rather grow out of interests aroused by their activities would consistently apply the same theory to the collegiate level. They would abandon the systematically organized courses and imposed assignments. Thus the student having learned in the way in which (according to the theory) children should learn will be able to adjust himself or herself to the elementary-school situation without difficulty.

Strangely enough, however, some of those who advocate this theory for the elementary school protest against anything like it in the training of teachers. Under the activity program, they say, the teacher must have a command of subjectmatter that is much more extensive than is needed when

one teaches logically organized subjects. "Where can you tell where the mind of the child will lead you?" was the answer given to one of my students appointed to a position in an up-to-date school when she asked for a copy of the course of study. And if one cannot predict where the learner's interests will lead, one must in consequence be prepared for anything. The preparation of the teacher, then, must be very thoro and very broad, and systematic courses are deemed (by this group) essential to this end.

In a way I am disqualified to suggest steps toward a solution of the problem because, while I believe that the activity program has an important place in the kindergarten and the primary grades, I am convinced that it has a quite limited place after that, except for subnormal learners and for those who remain so volitionally immature that they can work only at the behest of immediate interest. For prospective kindergarten-primary teachers and teachers of subnormal classes, I should say that the best preparation would be extensive contacts with the activity program in the laboratory school. The training institutions, however, will need apparently to reckon with the possible extension of the activity program thruout the elementary and high school, and this will demand, I think, a type of training that reflects on the college level at least some features of the activity program itself. The solution that Dr. Alexander and Dr. Stratemeyer are trying in New College combines thoroging and systematic courses in subjectmatter, paralleled by a series of seminars which operate in some measure on an activity basis, and this may prove to be an effective compromise.

There still remains for consideration the type of preparation that will best meet the needs of those who will teach the courses which combine materials from related subject fields. Here I would suggest professional-content courses similar to that which Dr. W. L. Schaaf has prepared for teachers of junior high-school mathematics. This is a course on the collegiate level dealing with the actual materials of the junior high-school course, with related materials of a much more advanced type, and treating also the problem of adapting materials to the needs and capacities of junior high-school pupils. For teachers of the socalled fusion course in the social studies, one might expect that well-organized professional content courses in history, government, geography, and economics would suffice, but this does not seem to be the case, and I am inclined to think that a course similar in purpose and organization to that of Dr. Schaaf will be necessary if the fusion movement is extended.

If any teachers should be carefully prepared it is the teachers of the American schools as operated under our dominant educational theory. The whole tendency of this theory is to increase the complexity of the processes of teaching and learning, sometimes to the point of confusion.

THE EDUCATION OF EDUCATORS

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One of the most viable books that has appeared recently in the field of American education is Harold Rugg's *Culture and Education*. Culture has of late become a definitely technical term in sociology; and it is in the strictly sociological sense that Rugg uses the word. In that sense the word means, primarily the knowledges, and, secondarily the behavior patterns, involved in the social life. Another sociological term that Rugg uses with telling effect is the term "culture lag." The term means culture that is out of date, and hence out of joint with the other aspects of culture. The picture that the modern anthropologist and sociologist is developing of any particular culture is a culture of many parts, not a culture as a whole. Some parts of that culture change rapidly and other parts of that culture change more slowly, and when the anthropologist or the sociologist speaks of culture lag he means that one part of culture is lagging in its speed of movement behind another part of culture. A good example is the Santa Claus myth, which fitted in very well with the general culture system when residences were heated with fireplaces and big chimneys, down which Santa Claus could supposedly make his entrance. But now that residences are steam heated, and there is no chimney in sight, the Santa Claus story is obviously out-of-date. Culture lags are numerous in contemporaneous society as a result of the changes that have occurred in recent decades in almost all aspects of modern culture. One of the most interesting and significant parts of Rugg's book is his enumeration and discussion of the culture lags in education, that is, the curriculum subjects that may have fit the culture system of some previous period, but have hung over like the Santa Claus myth long after they have passed out of the culture system. It is a well-recognized principle in educational sociology that the curriculum should parallel the culture system. Rugg makes it apparent that our curriculum makers have committed numerous oversights at this point. This reference to the Rugg book may serve to introduce the responsibility of educational leaders to know the culture system in which they are living, so that they may be aware of culture lags and be prepared to rectify them. The world is full of popular mythologies, that is, traditional beliefs, that owe their currency not to demonstrated scientific validity, but to their general popular vogue, as for example, the old adage that "you can't teach an old dog new tricks," which means that elderly people cannot be expected to learn new things to advantage. We all know now that recent psychological research, especially under the leadership of Dr. Thorndike, has exploded that myth. We now know that elderly people can learn, provided they retain faith in themselves, and are willing to expend about the same amount of effort that young people expend. This is a myth in the field of psychology. Similarly, there are familiar popular mythologies in practically all fields of

science, especially in the so-called new humanities, that is, the sciences dealing with human nature and human relations such as geography, biology, psychology, anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, ethics, metaphysics, and history. A major business of schooling is to broadcast the accredited findings of the new humanities in the place of the popular mythologies, and unless the curriculum does that it is a culture lag and fails of its function.

It is scarcely more than forty years ago, for instance, that school children used to be told in all seriousness that the North Pole was surrounded with a warm open sea. That myth has long since been exploded by subsequent explorations. The myth of prenatal influence still persists in many minds because schools have failed to teach the appropriate biology. College education nowadays often consists largely of unlearning the popular mythologies with which young people have graduated from high school; which means that the high-school curriculum is still replete with culture lags.

Of late years I have several times heard emphasis in his public utterances by our own Dean Haggerty, who is recognized as one of America's outstanding educational leaders, upon the desirability of more extensive subjectmatter equipment on the part of teachers. In his contribution to President Coffman's recent report he writes: "Competent high-school teachers should have a broader and more thorough academic education than is provided in the present four-year teachers college curriculum." Thus is he taking his stand for the enrichment of subjectmatter education in teacher training, as an appropriate utilization of the present transition imposed upon us by the current depression. Pursuant to this objective are the lectures under the title of "Foundations of Educational Thinking," which he has sponsored for advanced students in education at this University during the past two years. These lectures have dealt with the fundamentals of biology, psychology, mathematics, sociology, economics, political science, and business administration which obviously ought to be a part of the equipment for educational leadership. For how, indeed, can educational leaders be expected to lead the changes now occurring in education, particularly to solve the problem of culture lags in the elementary and secondary curriculum, unless they are thoroughly grounded in all the important departments of the culture system in the midst of which they are living?

This imposes a staggering burden upon the candidates for educational leadership. It means that they are expected to be expert educational scientists and yet at the same time be all-around scholars in several fields. Curriculum makers must be expert in some field of subjectmatter, and sufficiently informed in several other fields to be able to accord experts in all these other fields the sympathy and collaboration they need to assure their special subjectmatter its appropriate recognition in the curriculum. A historian, for example, must receive from, and accord to, the chemist on his faculty enough tolerant sympathy so that a balanced recognition

in the curriculum for both subjects will result; from which it follows that finished educational leaders can hardly be turned out by any specialized course in education, except as such a course at the same time imbues its graduates with an ambition for life-long study of the various departments of the culture system.

It seems to me that there is a fallacy involved in the conventional education of educators. In my *Sociological Philosophy of Education* I included the following paragraphs in 1928:

The fallacy is derived without critical scrutiny from the popular mythologies. It is the now prevalent fetish of specialization. The concept that requires analysis in this case is that of the special field by which each profession is characterized.

Upon such analysis it turns out that each profession has a major and a minor specialty. Its major specialty is that body of scientific knowledge which it is the business of the profession to apply; its minor specialty is the scientized technic of applying that knowledge. The major specialty of the medical profession, for example, includes anatomy, physiology, and materia medica; its minor specialty the technic of conducting diagnoses, managing clinics, and administering hospitals. The major specialty of the legal profession includes the law and court precedents; its minor specialty, the technic of legal procedure. The major specialty of engineering includes the sciences applied in the profession; its minor specialty, the technic of applying them. Similarly, the major specialty of the educator's profession is the knowledge of the culture, what it is we shall try to make clear shortly; its minor specialty is the technic of managing schools and administering systems. What the educators have done is to equate the minor specialty of their own profession with the total specialty of the other professions.

But let us return to the main line of the argument, namely, to the philosophy underlying our thesis. We may begin by pointing out that the school administrator's work may be roughly analyzed into two major parts; executive details and the formulation of policy. The first is mere school shopkeeping; the second is educational statesmanship. The first includes supervision of instruction and discipline, school accounting both instructional and financial, selection of teachers, budget making, publicity, and the like. The second involves deciding what is to be taught, to whom, and by what equipments and arrangements. It involves, in other words, the progressive reorganization of the curriculum and of the facilities for presenting the same. In his first capacity as school shopkeeper the educational administrator is operating the school as it now is; in his second capacity as educational statesman he is making the school over into what it ought to become. In the one function he is merely running the school of today; in the other he is running the world of tomorrow. The second is by far the most important function of education in the present great transition. To perform the first function the educator needs the minor specialty of his profession—the science of school administration. But to perform the second function he requires that major specialty of his profession which turns out to be, not special at all, but the broadest and most liberal enlightenment possible (a knowledge of the culture).¹

Suppose a man has on his hands an old brewery of which he wants to make some use. He has first to decide whether he will remodel it into a broom factory, or a church, or what. Thomas Jefferson or Napoleon Bonaparte could have used the same staff of educational experts; but they would have used them to perfect school systems having entirely different

¹ Copied by permission of the publishers. The Macmillan Company, from the speaker's *A Sociological Philosophy of Education* (1925) pp. 534-39.

objectives. On account of the transitional nature of contemporaneous education, especially as indicated by the culture lags in the curriculum, modern educational statesmen are somewhat in the position of deciding between Napoleon and Jefferson. What are they going to make out of their old breweries? The broader their acquaintance with the culture system of evolving civilization the more likely they are to meet the telic responsibility of running the civilization of the future. Educational specialization has performed a very creditable service, to be sure. It has greatly improved the technics of teaching reading, arithmetic, and all other elementary subjects, and it has thrown immeasurable light on the detailed problems of school administration. Educational specialists could doubtless decide on the most efficient technic of teaching Latin; but it takes a broadly and comprehensively educated person to decide what kind of curriculum is a suitable substitute for Latin, now that there is so much suspicion that Latin is a culture lag.

Suppose the problem is that of providing young people with a program of music instruction that will enrich their lives thru participation in the musical resources of modern civilization. One way out is to employ a music supervisor and adopt his program. But there still remains for the educational administrator the problem of appraising his program, either approving or disapproving it, which is likely to be a perplexing problem for one reason or another. The supervisor's program may consist, for example, of a clever methodology, for teaching children to read music, which his subordinates imitate and his colleagues approve with great enthusiasm. But how is the superintendent to resolve his suspicion that the supervisor's program is, after all, but fractional, however clever, falling short of a well-rounded program of elementary music education? Confessedly there is no science of education that applies to the case. The only alternative is for the superintendent and a goodly percent of his principals to be musically well-educated themselves. They must be familiar with the world's best musical resources, otherwise how can they hope to formulate a competent judgment as to the supervisor's program? Musical instruction can hardly be hoped to be really educative except as educational leaders are musically educated themselves. And the same applies to every other branch of culture and education.

Or suppose the problem of the curriculum maker is to formulate a program of instruction that will generate, in the prospective citizenry, a sound public opinion as to what society should do about business depressions, or what public measures would prevent their recurrence. One formula that has been seriously proposed is to list the topics discussed in periodical literature and include those topics in the curriculum offering. But the inadequacy of such procedure will be realized at a glance by considering how negligible has been the reference to business depressions in the periodical literature of the last fifteen years. Another inference from current Education, capitalized, is to send out a questionnaire to high-school students and ask them what they would be interested in being taught. Such

a theory really implies that uneducated children are competent judges as to what their education should consist of.

I venture to suggest that the only qualification for the responsibility of getting us out of the present industrial muddle, or preventing subsequent ones, is a generous popular enlightenment as to the causes and cures of depressions. Educators in order to be entrustable with the responsibility of educating public opinion in defense against depressions must be thoroly competent to render a creditable reaction to a proposal like the following: Suppose we propose to teach our rising generation, first of all, that the fundamental cause of business depression is inherent in the profit system itself, so that we may expect a periodic recurrence as long as the present economic order remains. Suppose we teach our young people, in the second place, that the way out of the present depression is to bond the country heavily in order to get the money to start a generous program of buying. Suppose we tell our young people, in the third place, that such bonds ought to be paid off in twenty-five or thirty years by levying income and inheritance taxes, indoctrinating them with the idea that since the profit system is the culprit in the case, it is only fair to let the chief beneficiaries of the profit system bear the burden. How many educators are competent to decide whether such a scheme would be advisable or not? But what less than that can qualify educators to attack the problem of the depression; and who is ready to concede that educators can be excused from that responsibility? To qualify educators for such a responsibility they must be educated not only in orthodox economics, but in the whole range of economic literature, both conservative and radical.

Are music, science, art, and social knowledge really values, the utilization of which will enrich life, or are they merely fads and frills without which the oncoming generation can negotiate the new age just as well as not? Curriculum construction is essentially a problem of values; and the livability of life for the centuries ahead depends upon the selection made. The writer tried his best, in the March 1930 issue of *Educational Administration and Supervision* to make it clear that the question of values is not a question of science, a proposition that is well recognized, and that there is therefore no science that can inform a man as to which woman he loves, or what sort of wants and ideals he will do well to bring up his children to, or what are the most satisfying experiences available in contemporaneous civilization. But precisely such are the essential problems of the curriculum maker. What knowledges are needful to participation in the best things in civilization upon the part of the rising generation? And the only qualification for answering such questions is experience and generous participation: in other words, liberal education. One of the best books that the writer has read in recent months is the *Epic of America* by James Truslow Adams. Mr. Adams says: "To clear the muddle in which our education is at present, we shall obviously have to define our values. Unless we can agree on what the values of life are, we

clearly can have no goal in education, and if we have no goal, the discussion of methods is merely futile."

Earlier in this paper I said that by culture sociologists mean, primarily, the knowledges, and, secondarily, the behavior patterns involved in social life. In other words we use the knowledges as a means of securing life's values. For example, we can play the game of bridge only because we know the cards and the rules of the game. Knowledge is means to an end; the civilized behavior patterns are the ends. The curriculum depends primarily on what we want to do with it. We want to teach the new humanities, instead of the popular mythologies, because by the use of the new humanities we can carry out a civilized instead of an uncivilized program of behavior. From which it follows obviously that curriculum construction is fundamentally a selection of values.

That recent book by Frederick Allen entitled *Only Yesterday* impresses the reader with suspicion that the last decade has seen the vogue of many ideas which will be superseded by more mature ideas during the next decade. I think we are likewise at the dawn of a new era in education and the education of educators which will be characterized by a new faith in general culture, in the sociological sense of that word.

My assignment reads a little as if I were expected to stand up here, like an inspired oracle, and pronounce to you the final solution, one after another, of each and every one of our present social problems, and prescribe precisely the curriculum procedure that would solve the problem educationally. But that is too large an assignment for me; and, I suspect, for any man living. It hardly seems to me that that is the way in which new public opinions, policies, and programs materialize. If I were to attempt such a venture, most, at least many, of you would be disposed to argue with me. I did virtually that, perhaps you did not notice it, with respect to the problem of the depression. Let me repeat, just to call your attention to the lack of assent that I elicited. I proposed, first of all, indoctrinating our young people with the idea that the present profit system is the cause. How many of you would assent to that? I proposed, next, that we indoctrinate prospective voters with the idea of using the method of a war debt to start the wheels of industry; relying on a system of taxation that would lay the burden upon the rich exclusively. How much approval did I elicit for that? And if I were to bombinate similarly on any other of the problems of the present age I would fare no better than to start an argument; in which case I should suffer the trepidation and embarrassment of suspecting myself of being wrong after all. I doubt if the crystallization of any new consensus of public opinion, preparatory to the adoption of any new public policy, ever comes about in that way. I suspect that a new consensus of public opinion is the end result of a process of evolution. First of all, there begins to emerge in popular discussion a new idea; as for example the democratic suggestion in the political field, especially in America two centuries or more ago. The advocates of the new idea gradually asserted themselves in more emphatic and oracular fashion. Meanwhile the conservatives in

the situation lose no opportunity to betray the fact that they are still thinking wholly in an obsolescent past. But as time goes on there gradually accumulates a majority. Finally the public eventually wakes up to a new public opinion; whereupon the dissenting minority migrates to "Hull or Halifax." The function of the school meantime is principally to familiarize the rising generation with the *drift* of thought. There scarcely comes a moment, therefore, when even a Jefferson can prescribe with finality just what the school should inculcate as the way out. But if the school introduces its constituency to the *main currents of thought* the final result will be conclusive: the main currents of thought will eventually crystallize in public opinion and policy. You have accordingly assigned me a quite impossible, and utterly futile task. The answer cannot be specific; it can only be, to quote a phrase applied by Paul Monroe to the education of Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel: they "participated in the thought life of their age." That is what the schools of a democracy must do for its rising generation: induce the rising generation to participate in the thought life of their age, and leadership toward that objective is by all odds the major responsibility of educators. Above everything else, in a problematic transition period like the present, must educators themselves *participate in the thought life of their own age*. There is no substitute for that in the science of school shop-keeping.

LIST OF ACCREDITED INSTITUTIONS—1933-34

Longest curriculum indicated in number of years before each institution. *G* indicates graduate work offered.

The Roman numerals refer to Standards not fully met by the institution.

<i>Location</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>President</i>
ALABAMA		
Florence.....	4/State Teachers College.....	H. J. Willingham
Jacksonville.....	4/State Teachers College.....	C. W. Doughter
Livingston.....	4/State Teachers College.....	G. W. Brock
Troy.....	4/State Teachers College, IV.....	E. M. Shackelford
ARIZONA		
Flagstaff.....	4/Arizona State Teachers College, VIII	Grady Gammage
Tempe.....	4/Arizona State Teachers College....	Ralph W. Swetman
ARKANSAS		
Arkadelphia.....	4/Henderson State Teachers College..	J. P. Womack
Conway.....	4/Arkansas State Teachers College....	H. L. McAlister
CALIFORNIA		
Fresno.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Frank W. Thomas
San Diego.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Edward L. Hardy
COLORADO		
Greeley.....	<i>G</i> /Colorado State Teachers College....	George W. Frasier
Gunnison.....	<i>G</i> /Western State College of Colorado, V	C. C. Casey
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA		
Washington.....	4/Miner Teachers College, IX.....	E. A. Clark
Washington.....	4/Wilson Teachers College, IV, IX....	E. C. Higbie
GEORGIA		
Athens.....	4/Georgia State Teachers College, IV.	Jere M. Pound
Collegeboro.....	4/South Georgia Teachers College, IX	Guy H. Wells
Milledgeville.....	4/Georgia State College for Women... J. L. Beeson	
Valdosta.....	4/Georgia State Woman's College, V..	R. H. Powell
ILLINOIS		
Carbondale.....	4/Southern Illinois State Normal University	H. W. Shryock
Charleston.....	4/Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, VIII	L. C. Lord
Chicago.....	3/Chicago Normal College, VI.....	Butler Laughlin
DeKalb.....	4/Northern Illinois State Teachers College	Karl L. Adams
Macomb.....	4/Western Illinois State Teachers College	W. P. Morgan
Normal.....	4/Illinois State Normal University, V, VI	H. A. Brown
INDIANA		
Indianapolis.....	<i>G</i> /College of Education, Butler University	W. L. Richardson, Dean
Muncie	4/Ball State Teachers College.....	L. A. Pittenger
Terre Haute.....	<i>G</i> /Indiana State Teachers College....	L. N. Hines

<i>Location</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>President</i>
IOWA		
Cedar Falls.....	4/Iowa State Teachers College.....	O. R. Latham
KANSAS		
Emporia.....	G/Kansas State Teachers College.....	Thomas W. Butcher
Hays.....	G/Fort Hays Kansas State College....	W. A. Lewis
Pittsburg.....	G/Kansas State Teachers College.....	W. A. Brandenburg
Wichita.....	G/College of Education, University of Wichita, V	Leslie B. Sipple, Dean
KENTUCKY		
Bowling Green....	4/Bowling Green College of Com- merce, XI.....	J. L. Harman
Bowling Green....	G/Western Kentucky State Teachers College	H. H. Cherry
Morehead.....	4/Morehead State Teachers College..	J. Howard Payne
Murray.....	4/Murray State Teachers College, V, VIII	J. W. Carr, Acting
Richmond.....	4/Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College	H. L. Donovan
LOUISIANA		
Lafayette.....	4/College of Education, Southwestern Louisiana Institute	W. S. Dearmont, Dean
Natchitoches.....	4/Louisiana State Normal College....	W. W. Tison
MARYLAND		
Towson.....	3/Maryland State Normal School.....	Lida Lee Tall, Principal
MICHIGAN		
Detroit.....	G/Detroit Teachers College.....	W. E. Lessenger, Dean
Kalamazoo.....	4/Western State Teachers College....	D. B. Waldo
Marquette.....	4/Northern State Teachers College....	J. M. Munson
Mt. Pleasant.....	4/Central State Teachers College....	E. C. Warriner
Ypsilanti.....	4/Michigan State Normal College.....	Charles McKenny
MINNESOTA		
Bemidji.....	4/State Teachers College, IX.....	M. W. Deputy
Duluth.....	4/State Teachers College.....	E. W. Bohannon
Mankato.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Frank D. McElroy
Moorhead.....	4/State Teachers College.....	R. B. MacLean
St. Cloud.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Geo. A. Selke
Winona.....	4/State Teachers College.....	G. E. Maxwell
MISSISSIPPI		
Cleveland.....	4/Delta State Teachers College.....	W. M. Kethley
Hattiesburg.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Claude Bennett
MISSOURI		
Cape Girardeau..	4/Southeast Missouri State Teachers College	Joseph A. Serena
Kansas City.....	4/Teachers College of Kansas City....	G. W. Diemer
Kirksville.....	4/Northeast Missouri State Teachers College	Eugene Fair

<i>Location</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>President</i>
Maryville.....	4/Northwest Missouri State Teachers College	Uel W. Lamkin
St. Louis.....	4/Harris Teachers College.....	J. Leslie Purdom
St. Louis.....	4/Stowe Teachers College, IV, V.....	
Springfield.....	4/Southwest Missouri State Teachers College	Roy Ellis
Warrensburg.....	4/Central Missouri State Teachers College, VI, VIII.....	E. L. Hendricks
MONTANA		
Dillon.....	4/State Normal College.....	Sheldon E. Davis
NEBRASKA		
Chadron.....	4/Nebraska State Normal College....	Robert I. Elliott
Kearney.....	4/Nebraska State Teachers College....	George E. Martin
Peru.....	4/Nebraska State Teachers College....	W. R. Pate
Wayne.....	4/Nebraska State Teachers College....	U. S. Conn
NEW HAMPSHIRE		
Keene.....	4/State Normal School, V.....	Wallace E. Mason
Plymouth.....	4/State Normal School.....	Ernest L. Silver
NEW JERSEY		
Jersey City.....	3/State Normal School, IV, V.....	W. A. Messler, Principal
Newark.....	3/State Normal School.....	M. Ernest Townsend, Principal
Trenton.....	4/State Teachers College, III.....	Roscoe L. West
Upper Montclair..	G/State Teachers College.....	H. A. Sprague
NEW MEXICO		
Las Vegas.....	G/New Mexico Normal University, IV, V	H. C. Gossard
Silver City.....	G/New Mexico State Teachers College, VIII	A. O. Bowden
NEW YORK		
Albany.....	G/State College for Teachers, V, VI...	A. R. Brubacher
Buffalo.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Harry W. Rockwell
Fredonia.....	3/State Normal School.....	L. R. Gregory, Principal
Geneseo.....	3/State Normal School.....	W. A. Holcomb, Principal
New Paltz.....	3/State Normal School, V, VI.....	L. H. van den Berg, Principal
New York.....	G/School of Education, College of the City of New York, VI.....	Paul Klapper, Dean
Oswego.....	3/State Normal and Training School, V, VI.....	J. G. Riggs, Principal
NORTH CAROLINA		
Asheville.....	4/Asheville Normal and Teachers College, IV.....	John E. Calfee
Cullowhee.....	4/Western Carolina Teachers College, V, IX	H. T. Hunter
Greenville.....	4/East Carolina Teachers College....	Robert H. Wright

<i>Location</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>President</i>
NORTH DAKOTA		
Dickinson.....	4/State Normal School, V.....	C. L. Kjerstad
Ellendale.....	4/State Normal and Industrial School, IX	R. M. Black
Mayville.....	4/State Teachers College.....	C. C. Swain
Minot.....	4/State Teachers College, V.....	George A. McFarland
Valley City.....	4/State Teachers College, V.....	C. E. Allen
OHIO		
Athens.....	G/College of Education, Ohio Univer- sity	Thomas C. McCracken, Dean
Bowling Green....	4/Bowling Green State College.....	H. B. Williams
Cleveland.....	4/School of Education, Western Re- serve University	Charles W. Hunt, Dean
Kent.....	4/Kent State College.....	J. O. Engleman
Oxford.....	G/School of Education, Miami Univer- sity	E. J. Ashbaugh, Dean
OKLAHOMA		
Ada.....	4/East Central State Teachers College.	Adolph Linscheid
Alva.....	4/Northwestern State Teachers Col- lege, V	W. W. Parker
Durant.....	4/Southeastern State Teachers College	Eugene S. Briggs
Edmond.....	4/Central State Teachers College.....	M. A. Beeson
Tahlequah.....	4/Northeastern State Teachers College	M. P. Hammond
Weatherford.....	4/Southwestern State Teachers Col- lege, V	C. W. Richards
PENNSYLVANIA		
Bloomsburg.....	4/State Teachers College, V.....	Francis B. Haas
California.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Robert M. Steele
East Stroudsburg..	4/State Teachers College, IX.....	T. T. Allen
Edinboro.....	4/State Teachers College, IX.....	C. C. Crawford
Indiana.....	4/State Teachers College.....	C. R. Foster
Kutztown.....	4/State Teachers College, V, IX.....	A. C. Rothermel
Lock Haven.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Dallas W. Armstrong
Mansfield.....	4/State Teachers College.....	W. R. Straughn
Millersville.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Landis Tanger
Shippensburg.....	4/State Teachers College.....	A. L. Rowland
Slippery Rock.....	4/State Teachers College.....	J. L. Eisenberg
West Chester.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Norman W. Cameron
SOUTH DAKOTA		
Aberdeen.....	4/Northern Normal and Industrial School	David Allen Anderson
Madison.....	2/Eastern State Normal School.....	E. A. Bixler, Acting
Spearfish.....	2/State Normal School.....	E. C. Woodburn
Springfield.....	2/Southern State Normal School, VI...	C. G. Lawrence
TENNESSEE		
Johnson City.....	4/State Teachers College, V.....	C. C. Sherrod
Memphis.....	4/State Teachers College.....	J. W. Brister
Murfreesboro.....	4/State Teachers College, V.....	P. A. Lyon
Nashville.....	4/Tennessee Agricultural & Industrial State College, VI, IX.....	W. J. Hale

<i>Location</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>President</i>
TEXAS		
Alpine.....	4/Sul Ross State Teachers College....	H. W. Morelock
Canyon.....	G/West Texas State Teachers College	J. A. Hill
Commerce.....	4/East Texas State Teachers College..	S. H. Whitley
Denton.....	4/North Texas State Teachers College, VI	R. L. Marquis
Huntsville....	4/Sam Houston State Teachers College	H. F. Estill
Nacogdoches.....	4/Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College, IX.....	A. W. Birdwell
San Marcos.....	4/Southwest Texas State Teachers Col- lege	C. E. Evans
UTAH		
Salt Lake City...	G/School of Education, University of Utah	Milton Bennion, Dean
VIRGINIA		
East Radford.....	4/State Teachers College.....	J. P. McConnell
Farmville.....	4/State Teachers College.....	J. L. Jarman
Fredericksburg....	4/State Teachers College.....	M. L. Combs
Harrisonburg.....	4/State Teachers College.....	S. P. Duke
WEST VIRGINIA		
Athens.....	4/Concord State Teachers College, V..	J. F. Marsh
Fairmont.....	4/Fairmont State Teachers College...	Joseph Rosier
Huntington.....	4/Marshall College	M. P. Shawkey
Shepherdstown....	4/Shepherd State Teachers College...	W. H. S. White
WISCONSIN		
Eau Claire.....	4/State Teachers College.....	H. A. Schofield
La Crosse.....	4/State Teachers College.....	G. M. Snodgrass
Menomonie.....	4/The Stout Institute.....	B. E. Nelson
Milwaukee.....	4/State Teachers College.....	Frank E. Baker
Oshkosh.....	4/State Teachers College, V.....	Forrest R. Polk
Platteville.....	4/State Teachers College.....	A. M. Royce
River Falls.....	4/State Teachers College.....	J. H. Ames
Stevens Point.....	4/Central State Teachers College, V, VIII	F. S. Hyer
Superior.....	4/Superior State Teachers College....	J. D. Hill
Whitewater.....	4/State Teachers College.....	C. M. Yoder

Department of Visual Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION was organized at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting in July, 1923. See *Proceedings*, 1923:85-A. The officers of this Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, Mrs. Grace Fisher Ramsey, Associate Curator of Education, American Museum of Natural History, 77th Street and Central Park West, New York, N. Y.; *First Vicepresident*, C. F. Hoban, Director, Visual Education Division, State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.; *Second Vicepresident*, Rupert Peters, Director of Visual Instruction, Public Schools, Kansas City, Mo.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Ellsworth C. Dent, Director of Visual Instruction, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kans.; *Executive Committee*: Abraham Krasker, Director, Visual Instruction, Public Schools, Quincy, Mass. (Term expires 1934); Daniel C. Knowlton, Associate Professor of Education, New York University, New York, N. Y. (Term expires 1935); John A. Hollinger, Director of Nature Study and Visualization, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa. (Term expires 1936); William H. Dudley, 736 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill. (Term expires 1937); Mrs. Grace Fisher Ramsey, Associate Curator of Education, American Museum of Natural History, 77th Street and Central Park West, New York, N. Y. (Term expires 1938); Robert Collier, Jr., Director of Visual Instruction, South High School, Denver, Colo. (Term expires 1939).

This Department meets once each year, in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1923:85-A	1925:864-871	1927:951-970	1929:937-944	1931:947-963
1924:963-985	1926:949-963	1928:949-970	1930:911-930	1932:787-800

OBJECT-SPECIMEN-MODEL MATERIAL THAT MAY BE ASSEMBLED WITHOUT COST OR AT VERY LITTLE COST IN THE FIELD OF ELEMENTARY SCIENCE

MRS. GRACE FISHER RAMSEY, ASSOCIATE CURATOR OF EDUCATION, AMERICAN
MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Children begin the study of science quite naturally when they discover their own little fingers and toes, and persist in it with very good adherence to our accepted pedagogic practises until continual lack of response from grown-ups diverts them into other lines. They lack that guidance from direct observation which the cave boy of eolithic times secured from his parents who taught him how to fashion flints over the fire. But the mind of the boy is the same today as it was in eolithic times. He needs the same direct contact with things and natural phenomena which his cave ancestors had.

Perhaps children today would not need to be taught to think if adults would give them more opportunities for thinking. The framework of a plan in elementary science should never be so rigid that it cannot provide for the immediate use of the children's discoveries and experiences. If a teacher is sympathetic and uses enough initiative, he can so direct the children that they can work out for themselves science projects which will illustrate fundamental ideas of science far more important to the children than any textbook lesson.

Science projects often come as a response to need in the minds of children. They reach a stage in the development of a unit of work where they feel an urge to express some phase of the unit. For young children an intimate appeal is possible and important. Whatever they can see, hear, and touch for themselves intrigues them. They have something of the primitive feeling for the impersonal world. Everything is so new and fresh and alive to them. At the right time, the making and using of visual-sensory projects will aid in clarifying their ideas and give them a desirable opportunity for self-expression. For sheer enjoyment there is nothing to equal the fun children have in creating their own models and other exhibits.

Nor need any teacher ever hesitate to allow children to work out their ideas because of the cost of construction. An ingenious teacher can help the children find ways of using all kinds of materials at little or no cost in the preparation of their specimens or exhibits. Expensive and complicated apparatus has no place in elementary science work. A few tools, plenty of bottles, jars, glass tubing, old window shades, bits of cord, old newspapers, discarded cardboard, left-over paint, and tin cans have endless possibilities for experiments and elementary science projects. Museum materials as minerals, shells, skeletons, seems to accumulate almost faster than space can be found for their storage. The ten-cent store, the drug store and the homes of the children themselves, are excellent and inexpensive sources of supply.

Old tin boxes make excellent places for children to store butterflies on their field trips. Mayonnaise jars are used for killing insects painlessly with a bit of cotton soaked in carbona. Old coffee cans equipped with small elec-

tric bulbs also serve as reflectors for use in connection with microscopes and in lighting up geography projects. For a Swiss mountain scene it may be desirable to arrange a reflector so it will give the effect of the brightness of midday or the soft glow of a moonlight evening, or a beautiful sunset with a red glow spreading over the mountain peaks. To effect this, make a simple cylindrical frame on which pieces of red, yellow and blue crepe paper are pasted lengthwise. Slip the frame over the electric bulb placed for lighting the interior of the group, then attach the frame to a knob on the outside so it can be turned to give the desired lighting effect.

MAINTAINING VISUAL EDUCATION IN THE FACE OF ECONOMIC FIRE

ALBERT LINDSAY ROWLAND, PRESIDENT, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE,
SHIPPENSBURG, PA.

Visual education is an inevitable feature of the teaching processes. Whenever and wherever it occurs and as far as it stands out from other forms of education it is an attitude of mind and point of view rather than a distinct subject of the curriculum. Everything may be taught in whole or in part thru visual aids; in fact, in the larger sense education has always been visual. The blackboard is perhaps the most common piece of school apparatus in the world and is essentially a visual aid. It has no meaning except as it presents a visual impression to the pupils. The important position to be taken by advocates of visual education, therefore, at the present time is to emphasize the fact, first that education is already largely visual and second, that the visual emphasis can be laid without the expenditure of any additional sums of money.

There are perhaps four main divisions of visual material: pictures, representations other than pictures, specimens, and excursions.

Altho motion picture films and apparatus for their projection fall under the head of pictures, there is a vast supply of pictorial material that is either without cost or at no increase in cost over the simplest equipment now provided in the humblest school. All school books for younger children contain illustrative material. A great flood of advertising matter in the form of leaflets, travel booklets, railroad folders and the like are available for the asking and a teacher of ingenuity can gather together an amazing array of this type of illustrative material with no cost except the time and energy required.

Representations include sandtable models of land and water formations, models of a typical country village or of an industrial plant, relief maps of sections of the world's surface, models of machinery and inventions, dolls, puppet shows, and the great realm of dramatic representations.

Specimens include raw materials, manufactured products and the intermediate stages between the two, uniforms, furniture, garments, rugs of former times and of the present, of other countries and of our own.

Excursions include visits to historical sites, to natural phenomena, to manufacturing plants, to farms, to stores, to utility plants, to government

buildings, such as courts, police stations, fire houses, executive offices, legislative halls, and to publicity agencies, publishing plants and newspapers.

It is at once apparent that these forms of visual aid to the normal processes of instruction may be had at little or no cost and require chiefly ingenuity, energy, and intelligence on the part of the teacher.

RESPONSIBILITY OF TEACHER-PREPARATION INSTITUTIONS FOR VISUAL EDUCATION COURSES—FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

ELDA L. MERTON, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
WAUKESHA, WIS.

The problem arises as to whether state teachers colleges shall offer a required course in visual education based on nature and correct use of visual aids in teaching or whether this program shall be presented incidentally in the present general methods courses in reading, language, and the social and physical sciences.

Every teacher needs as part of basic understanding of his work a complete survey of the visual aids available for teaching, including uncommercialized aids such as textbook and magazine pictures and prints, experiments, excursions, dramatizations, maps, globes, charts, graphs and diagrams, museum specimens, models and collections, and classroom exhibits, as well as the commercialized aids such as motion picture, slide, film-roll, opaque projection machines, stereographs and stereoscopes. This overview must show the teacher the peculiar contribution of each of these aids, and the specific teaching situations best adapted to each. He must become fully aware of the fact that each aid has its own advantages and limitations in various teaching situations.

Following this overview the teacher needs to take specific teaching situations and incorporate into the teaching plan the best visual aids to meet the particular situation.

Students having training in visual education courses have been found to use vicarious experiences in their teaching more frequently and more intelligently than teachers dependent upon incidental training of general methods courses, since the latter courses cannot present the work with sufficient emphasis to assure correct use of visual aids in actual teaching experiences.

Students of visual education courses recognize:

1. Inadequacy of verbal instruction alone in many teaching situations due to lack of experiences or similarity of experiences among any group of children.
2. Lack of teaching possibilities in many textbook pictures and legends beneath these pictures.
3. Need for teachers to train their pupils to *interpret* pictures.
4. That a single picture, at best, is static. It can only show a scene as it was the moment the camera was flashed. It cannot show change, it cannot show an object from more than one angle, nor can it show more than one step in a process. It is filled with abstractions of size, sound, color, odor, taste, temperature, weight, distance, depth, texture or substance, feeling, emotion or mood,

speed and motion, and frequently there are also abstractions of location, time of day or year, purpose, structure, or relationship.

5. That these abstractions and limitations of pictures must be met with clear vivid descriptions, interpretative questions, careful testing of what the child has gained from the picture, and class discussions. Also the teacher may turn to the rich and varied field of visual aids and select those especially designed to overcome these limitations.

Contributions of each visual aid to teaching situations are as follows:

1. Motion picture: Situations depending upon understanding of motion or emotion.
2. Lantern slide: Focuses attention of entire group for class discussion and analysis of a still picture.
3. Film-roll: An orderly and complete series of pictures showing every stage of a process, industry, or journey at a low cost.
4. Opaque projector: Projects textbook and magazine pictures, prints, maps, graphs, diagrams, or descriptive paragraphs.
5. Stereograph and stereoscope: Give reality to distance and depth, and shut child away from present environment.
6. Textbook picture or print: Recalls actual past experience.
7. Maps and globes: Give bird's eye view of large area and give sense of direction and location.
8. Graphs and charts: Help to visualize numerical relationships.
9. Diagrams: Cross-sections or complete views of inaccessible areas or complete processes at one time are best shown by diagrams.
10. Dramatization: Provides for emotional expression and an understanding of feelings or moods.
11. Experiments: Permit one to observe change when one has put materials under certain conditions to see what will happen.
12. Museums: Provide specimens, objects, models, and collections.
13. Original sketches, posters, or a frieze: A means of expression and an outlet for the child's imagination.
14. Cartoons: To convey a story of a political, social, or economic nature in briefest possible time and smallest possible space.
15. Excursion or field trip: Provide the actual first-hand experience.

To observe is not merely to have sensations and feelings. It is also to interpret what these sensations mean. Observation is an art and must be cultivated, for we really see only what we are trained to see. Observation is our method of visual instruction.

Experience is the very heart and life blood of effective teaching. It is in the providing of experiences, real or vicarious, that visual instruction has its contribution and therefore its justification.

Just as we cannot expect materials and tools to result in a finished and substantial structure without their proper use in the hands of trained workmen, so likewise, we cannot expect the materials and tools of visual instruction to insure interest, economy, and efficiency in teaching and learning without their proper use in the hands of trained teachers.

So vital a factor in the successful program of the classroom teacher should not be left to incidental training, but a special visual education course, broad in scope and practical in its applications, should be part of the required training of every classroom teacher.

WHAT REALIA (OBJECTS-SPECIMENS-MODELS) MAY BE ASSEMBLED WITHOUT COST OR AT VERY LITTLE COST TO SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SCIENCES?

WILBER EMMERT, DIRECTOR OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, INDIANA, PA.

The object-specimen-model type of visual-sensory aid has always been considered essential to the successful teaching of science subjects. Contrary to the popular belief objects-specimens-models for science work may be had in abundance at little or no cost.

Science is something to be understood. The purpose of the school is to present the environment of persons and things to the child in such form that he can learn to adapt himself to it. The ultimate goal of any science study is the desirable modification of the life of the student. High-school science should modify the life of the student thru the nature of the content and the method of study used. Science must be considered as both subjectmatter and method.

Four widely accepted specific objectives of science teaching are: (1) the acquisition of knowledge (in the form of understandings); (2) the discovery and development of desirable study habits, study attitudes, abilities, and skills; (3) the development and growth in desirable attitudes toward appreciations of and adaptations to the environment; (4) the development of wholesome interests.

The object-specimen-model type of visual-sensory aid furnishes the type of experience that makes possible an adequate understanding of much of the school work. It makes the thing studied real to the child, it provides correct concepts, it effects an economy of time in the learning process. It stimulates interest, and the self-activity involved allows free range to the initiative of the child and to his creative tendencies.

The sources of object-specimen-model materials are numerous. Museums and extension departments of colleges often have prepared exhibits which are regularly loaned to schools, for instructional purposes. Industries and commercial concerns are often eager to dispose of last year's models at no cost. They are also willing to loan their window exhibits and models to schools. Homes often prove to be valuable sources of science materials, such as fabrics, plumbing fixtures, lamps, foodstuffs, fossil specimens and collections. The field, the stream, the woods, mines, quarries, mills, shops, garages, thrust their products upon us at every turn. Butcher shops are available for anatomical materials. The science laboratories can be used to prepare microscopic slides, make models, prepare specimens, and arrange exhibits. All these things may be had at very little cost.

A four-year plan is suggested as a means of systematically accumulating object-specimen-model materials for the high-school sciences. This four-year plan involves a careful study of the subjectmatter for the four sciences of the high school. Certain things assembled for the ninth-grade science work

may be effectively used in certain phases of the other science subjects. Likewise materials accumulated for the higher sciences may be used to great advantage in the classes of the lower high-school science work.

By basing the plans on the course of study for the everyday science, materials prepared for that subject will provide a definite plan for attacking the problem, and the things so arranged may be used in as many of the other sciences as possible. Then the "gaps," or units omitted, can be filled in with materials for the other three subjects. This cooperative work will stress the interdependent relationships of science and assist in fulfilling the purposes of science education.

Unlimited materials may be secured dealing with machines, heat, light, sound, electricity and magnetism, chemical compounds, chemical apparatus, biological specimens, living plants and animals, transformations of matter and energy, food, shelter, clothing, industrial and manufacturing processes, construction, and transportation. These may be in the form of the objects themselves, specimens, or models of the problems studied.

Such materials are available on every hand and at little or no cost. Many teachers are blind to the opportunities provided by such materials. They are also blind to the materials themselves. They do not see in used and cast-off machines, implements, and the like, materials of great value in class work. Teacher-training institutions have the duty of demonstrating to the prospective teachers and the teachers in service the sources, the types of materials available, and technics for their use. The object-specimen-model materials properly used will facilitate the business of the school, and aid in the accomplishment of the major objectives of education and of science education. The use of low cost or materials of no cost to the districts will materially assist the administration of the schools by relieving the finance officer of the school of that item on the school budget.

MINIMUM REALIA FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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If the main objective in the teaching of history be to make the past real, it would appear that no instructional materials could possibly exceed in value those consisting of actual fragments of the life of the past. Under these conditions we should expect the greatest possible use of museums and an ever-increasing number of educational excursions, to say nothing of the acquisition by the schools of larger and larger collections of objects and models.

This objective, however, is but one of many, and has not yet been accepted at its real value. Most teachers pay it but lip service. This in large measure explains the fact that with the increasing resources at his command the teacher of history has made but little progress in evolving a program. While the collections of museums have grown, and an interested public has restored historic sites and appropriated moneys for the preservation of historic

buildings, most teachers are satisfied with a limited equipment of actual historical objects or replicas of the same. Even where the local resources have been carefully worked over and embodied in a number of carefully planned excursions, as in a great city like New York, they are blissfully ignorant of these efforts.

Such a list of so-called "artifacts" and history models as Miss Annette Glick published in the *Historical Outlook* seven years ago (Vol. 17, No. 8) more than suffices the teacher today. Probably he is unaware of such a compilation and would find there more than enough to satisfy his classroom needs.

In 1929 the City of New York adopted a course of study in history for the first eight grades which is somewhat of a model of its kind in calling attention to local materials of this character and in listing them in some detail in connection with the work planned for each grade. For example, excursions are suggested in connection with the history taught in 7B to Fraunces Tavern, the Jumel Mansion, the Fort Washington Monument, the American wing of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, to the tablets in Prospect Park, etc. No effort is made to list what might be studied in the American wing of the Metropolitan as handbooks have been prepared by the Museum itself listing its treasures and indicating their relation to the development of early American furniture. This is but a single illustration, which might be multiplied, of the growing importance attaching to the use of this form of visual material.

The attention given to construction largely thru projects undertaken in the history classroom has undoubtedly placed such materials in a new light and revealed something of their effectiveness in presenting the past. The growing use of dramatization has had this same effect, revealing the importance of stage properties and accessories, necessitating the most careful study in order to meet the requirements of such situations.

But the purpose of this paper is not so much to prescribe ways and means of using these aids as of suggesting something on the order of a guide or inventory. Additions to Miss Glick's list as history is now being taught must be in the realm of life as it is being lived at present. If, as T. R. Glover suggests in a recent volume, history should be a study "more akin to biology than to morphology, a study of the living rather than of the dead," the range of such materials is tremendously increased. There is scarcely an object which comes within the province of living that does not supply material to the teacher of history.

The "new history" no longer recognizes the narrow bounds of the history of a generation ago. From this point of view the contents of a person's pockets provide a real index to the living conditions of his generation and that of other generations before him.

Granting, then, the importance of these "traces" of life, it behooves the teacher to make a more careful study of objects or material remains with a view to acquiring those which will really add to the pupils' appreciation and comprehension of past situations or of strange and unfamiliar conditions.

The amount and richness of this material is more or less a deterrent to its use or to the establishment of a school museum where it may be readily available for use. While charts, maps, and pictures all have their place here, the very nature of this other material makes its claims to inclusion of paramount consideration.

A teacher visiting the Egyptian rooms of the Metropolitan Museum with a class finds it difficult to concentrate attention where the whole range of Egyptian life is spread out before him. Careful and discriminating selection is demanded. Some few things must be isolated and when this is done they must be carefully appraised and related to that larger whole of which they are a part. From the instructional point of view a single item upon which the group may concentrate, if it be one that embodies an important aspect of the subject, may be worth more than the whole roomful of relics.

WHAT RECENT SCIENTIFIC EXPERIMENTS SHOW WITH REFERENCE TO VISUAL-SENSORY AIDS

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In general, the comparisons of teaching with and without visual aids have given positive results; that is, they have shown that such instruction is superior to mere verbal instruction. In some cases, however, in which the picture was not appropriate to the subject being taught, visual instruction did not prove to be superior.

A series of conclusions relates to the conditions which are necessary to make visual instruction effective. In the first place, the visual instruction must give the child new experience. If it merely repeats experiences he has had before it is not an important basis of instruction. In the next place, the subjectmatter presented in the film must be appropriate to that particular type of presentation. Some kinds of subjectmatter are best shown in motion pictures, some in photographs, some in slides, some in stereographs, and so on. Furthermore, some kinds of material are not appropriately presented by any kind of visual material. Abstract ideals and generalizations can best be represented in language. Such language may be recorded in books or other printed matter. The same thing is true of tabular material, maps, and diagrams. Such material is not appropriate for motion pictures. On the other hand, certain forms of development can best be shown by animated diagrams. Still pictures give the best opportunity for analysis and detailed study. Perspective is best shown in stereoscope. A careful study needs to be made of each kind of material in order to determine how it can best be shown.

The value of color has been made a special subject of study. Certain subjects such as costumes or gardens can best be shown by color. This is true also of some spatial relations such as are involved in anatomical figures. However, the details of architectural structures and of other similar objects can best be made out in uncolored pictures.

Pictures, particularly motion pictures, give concrete particularity. A similar conclusion was drawn from the Eastman study to the effect that pupils could best answer questions calling for description when they had seen motion pictures, but that questions calling for explanation could be answered as well by those who had received verbal instruction. The historical studies indicate that the motion picture film is not preeminently fitted to give time relations. These should be emphasized by other methods, such as chronological tables or charts.

It has sometimes been thought that the memory of motion pictures is much more permanent than the memory of oral instruction. The experiments do not bear out this conclusion. It is therefore necessary to organize reviews and to provide for permanence in the case of visual instruction as well as in the case of any other type of instruction.

The experiments uniformly indicate that oral comment by the teacher adds to the effectiveness of all types of visual instruction. This oral comment must, of course, be carefully planned and given. The experiments also give clear evidence of the effectiveness of the teacher and indicate the incorrectness of the view which is sometimes held that mechanical methods will eventually displace the teacher.

A number of experiments suggest that visual methods are particularly helpful to the slower, duller pupils. They are also of value to the bright pupils, but apparently the bright pupil is able to interpret language somewhat more effectively than is the duller pupil. The value of visual aids is not primarily in the greater interest which they awaken, altho this is of some importance, but primarily in the greater clarity of perception which they make possible. The advantage of a lecture given on the film is a contingent advantage. Skillful comment by the teacher may give as good results, but in cases in which a good teacher is not available the talking motion picture provides a good substitute for the oral comments by the teacher.

VISUAL AIDS AND THE ECONOMIC SITUATION

A. J. STODDARD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

The use of visual aids to teaching can be justified from two standpoints. They may make the educational process more effective or they may make possible the same results at less cost. Either result would justify a continued and possibly an expanding interest in visual aids even in times of grave economic stringency such as exist at present in most school systems.

The full potentialities of visual aids have not been realized in most cases because of certain unsolved problems involved in their use. The problems have been unsolved largely because teachers and administrators have failed to realize fully the importance of the technical or mechanical side of the device. They have not made the aid a ready servant in the teaching process. The teacher must know just when and why the device is to be used. It

should enable him to do that particular part of teaching with that device better than in any other way.

The coming of slide projection and motion pictures brought a degree of reality into the classroom that had not been possible before. The talking picture or sound film has extended the influence of these devices and, thru combining the teaching appeal simultaneously to the eye and ear, has made it possible to bring the outside world into the classroom. From one standpoint, it makes possible an improvement upon experience as a teacher in that the teaching situation can be controlled and repeated without variation as to educational value. The almost unlimited possibilities of the talking picture as a factor in education, if properly planned and constructed, are described clearly and forcefully in a new book just off the press. I refer to *The Educational Talking Picture* by F. L. Devereux, and published by the University of Chicago Press.

From the standpoint of increasing the effectiveness of the teaching process, the educational talking picture becomes an important phase of the question of school economics.

But there is another possibility of the educational talking picture as an economic factor that is of great significance to the educator. That is its relation to the question of class size. What determines how large a class can be taught effectively? Leaving out the element of the teacher, it is very largely a question of devices. There are many types of teaching where the participation on the part of the learner is mental and emotional rather than primarily physical.

In such teaching three steps should be included: the preparation, the presentation of the learning situation, and the follow-up to individualize the outcomes desired. It may be possible to include large numbers of learners at one time in the second step of the process.

An experiment has recently been conducted in the schools of Providence that promises interesting evidence on the question of increasing class size thru the use of educational talking pictures as a medium of instruction. Nearly fourteen hundred pupils in grade six participated in the experiment. Three large experimental groups of 150 pupils each, three large control groups of 150 pupils each, and eleven small control groups of 40 pupils each were the basis of the experiment. The experimental groups were taught with the aid of talking pictures while the other groups were taught with the aid of all other available devices. Common units of instruction were used in all classes. Six subjects, three in elementary science and three in music, were used. Each unit of instruction lasted one week. The teachers in the three large experimental groups, in the three large control groups, and in three of the small control groups were rotated each week. The purpose of the experiment has been to determine the relative effectiveness of teaching large groups with the aid of talking pictures and small classes in the usual manner.

The experiment was completed early in June. Complete tabulation of results will not be possible for several weeks. Initial and final tests were

given for each of the six subjects, involving a total of nearly seventeen thousand tests. The first tabulations indicate that the experimental groups may have made as much or more progress than the control groups but enough figures are not yet available to draw conclusions. If it should be demonstrated from this experiment that classes of children of 150 can be taught as effectively *with* sound pictures as small groups *without* sound pictures, this fact would be of tremendous significance to education. Administrators cannot ignore a device that offers the economic possibilities that sound pictures do. It is not at all unlikely that this and other visual aids may offer some solution to the perplexing problem of the school budget.

RADIO-VISION

S. NAOMI ANDERSON, FIELD SUPERVISOR, VISUAL INSTRUCTION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

Realizing that the radio has been an aid in educating adults, the Chicago public schools have supported for the past three years an experimental School of the Air for school children. Thru the courtesy of WMAQ, the *Chicago Daily News* broadcasting station, thirty minutes each school day are given to class instruction. Teachers from the Chicago schools are selected to give this instruction.

The purpose of the School of the Air is to determine the value and place of the radio in the school program. We have discovered an interesting and valuable result of this teaching, namely, that these lessons tend to further teacher training. In our case, such lessons involving the use of visual aids may suggest to the teachers a technic in using pictures and may acquaint them with available visual aids.

Visual aids may be helpful in teaching social science. An attempt has been made to suggest exactly where and how they may be used in one unit of social science—Russia, the Land and the People. In the Chicago public schools this unit is assigned to grade 6B. The abbreviated plan submitted for the study of Russia is based upon the adopted course of study. All of the main topics are mentioned, and under them are lists of some suitable visual aids.

Newspapers and current magazines are filled with articles on presentday Russia. Children are curious about the recent changes. Therefore, many of the pictures recommended are pictures of communistic Russia. They are authentic so far as is known. There is no thought of spreading communistic propaganda, but an attempt has been made to describe Russia as it is.

THE PLACE OF VISUAL AIDS IN TEACHING THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

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Children learn as they understand and they understand in proportion to their experiences. It has been said that 75 percent of what we learn is learned thru the eye. This shows the value of visual aids in education. Sensory aids is a better term than visual aids because it includes such sensations as sound, taste, and weight.

Visual education is old. All peoples have depended upon it from the beginning of civilization. And yet visual education in the schools is new. A decade or so marks the period of special emphasis on the subject.

One of the distinct trends in modern education is toward more pupil activities. Such activities take the form of visual and other sensory experiences. Visual aids as well as activity suggestions should be listed in courses of study for the use of the teacher when he selects his instructional material. Teachers should be given suggestions rather than directions.

Recent experiments in education show that visual and other sensory material help in instruction in three ways: (1) they effect an economy of time in learning; (2) they enrich instruction; and (3) they help to develop correct concepts.

Visual materials should be selected by the instructional departments of a school system in conjunction with a central visual education department. The social studies classroom in the modern school is a laboratory. In it are collected such materials as will give the child the sensory experience necessary to understand the concepts to be learned.

Visual education has demonstrated its values. In order for it to become all that it is capable of becoming, teachers must have adequate preparation and a profound knowledge of the philosophy that underlies learning thru the senses.

RELATING VISUAL-SENSORY AIDS TO THE CURRICULUM—A UNIT OF READING

MRS. MILDRED S. SMITH, ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL, DETROIT, MICH.

Last year the teaching staff in an elementary school in Detroit selected, as its major project for the year, special emphasis on the teaching of reading to those children who, because of low mentality or other handicaps, encounter difficulty in the process of learning to read.

It was decided first of all, to select from the lower grades those children who it was probable to predict would be doomed to failure during the coming year. Those children were segregated and given intensive training which might enable them successfully to surmount the usual reading difficulties. Altho the children represented a wide range in age and grade level, the method of teaching was much the same for all groups. There was an attempt

to use the best teaching methods which are generally accepted as fundamental in good teaching.

The specific method of teaching was as follows: A topic was selected which was within the interest and understanding of the pupils. A stereograph was used to present the subject during a conversational period at which time the children became familiar with the objects and many of the words to be introduced. The stereograph, because of its third dimension quality, showed the objects exactly as they appear in reality. This gave the pupils a true and vivid picture of the topic being discussed.

Direct association of the object and word symbols was next accomplished by means of a lantern slide. The slide was projected in natural size and upon the picture the words were placed in appropriate places. For the beginners, who were not familiar with script, the slide was projected upon the blackboard and the words written upon it. For the children who were acquainted with the script form the slide was projected upon a flash-card holder and the words placed correctly upon it. With the picture to guide him, the child was able to recognize readily the word with its related meaning. One of the greatest advantages of the method was the confidence built up within the pupil. He was able to name words and phrases before he was recognizing contours.

After several words had been introduced the pupils were encouraged to suggest stories in which the words occurred. The stories were placed upon slides and read in that group later. Mastery of the words was secured by means of flashcard reviews, vitalized drill periods, and seat work activities. The Keystone Visual Readers were used as basic text and many others were used in a supplementary manner to gain fluency. A large pictorial dictionary was placed on the wall to serve as a reference for associating words and pictures. This dictionary device, aided by some training in phonics, encouraged the pupils to work independently on self-initiated reading tasks.

Altho there are no scientific data available the results in general were very satisfactory. In the beginning group there were no failures for two semesters. The scores made on the final test for the second semester were higher than the scores made by the two other groups taught by a different method and who had a higher intelligence rating. At the close of the semester the retarded group made a greater gain in score points than a similar group in another school, taught by a different method. These children were given several tests: Gray's Oral, Pressy's First Grade, Detroit IB, Iota, Thorndike.

The teachers reported that the greatest gain could not be shown in actual reading scores. The enthusiasm with which the children utilized their free time for reading purposes, the eagerness with which they looked forward to reading assignments, the self-assurance and confidence with which they attacked new material, all gave evidence that desirable habits had been established which would develop thoughtful, independent readers.

VISUAL AIDS RELATED TO THE CURRICULUM

JOHN A. HOLLINGER, DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE AND VISUAL EDUCATION, PITTSBURGH, PA.

Two types of materials function in the development of intelligent individuals. First, are those materials of general interest that furnish background and develop attitudes and appreciation. These materials are available for assembly and other extracurriculum activities in the schools. Motion pictures, lantern slides, all kinds of objects, specimens, and other realia with general social, scientific, or artistic values may be used effectively in the auditorium and other assembly programs. For mass instruction and for recreation these have their place.

The other type of instructional materials can be more specifically effective in attaining knowledge and skill outcomes. In the classroom such materials are closely related to the curriculum. Every effective teaching device and all content materials bear directly on the ideas immediately at hand or deal with the specific skills to be developed. Every classroom period should be a worthwhile experience rich in content. Those participating in such experiences should grow more and more into the likeness of the man that is to be. As an integral part of classroom conferences, content materials function to integrate the life of every individual participating.

We assume general agreement upon the principle that visual-sensory materials used in the classroom are related to the curriculum and integrated with the experiences of those participating in classroom conferences. Our brief discussion deals with methods of accomplishing this. The method of the classroom teacher is important. However, administration and supervision are equally important to the effective relation of visual materials to curriculums.

A teacher of physics, by improving the selection of materials and the devices that he uses, improves his outcomes considerably. Pupils' responses rise to higher levels and instructional materials are improved as well. Supplies and equipment are carefully selected for individual pupil experiments and for pupil or teacher demonstrations. But lapses occur here and there. Here a motion picture is used, there lantern slides, until the curriculum is complete. However, to close the gaps "homemade" lantern slides are prepared.

To assist teachers in such procedures the school system is responsible for proper administration and supervision. Materials must be selected with care and teachers should be urged to make refinements as they use materials in the classroom.

Standards for selecting materials must be formulated and so manipulated as to serve as tools. A score sheet assigning numerical values to different items of the standards, furnishes an instrument that may be used rather generally for selecting materials. On the score sheet provision may be made for assigning materials definitely to certain curriculums and specific grade levels. With such a score sheet the materials of specific classroom value may also be distinguished from those of general value for assembly programs.

After materials have been selected for a school system, cataloging is essential so as to make them readily available for the use of teachers. This catalog must list materials in a comprehensive manner under the different subjects of the program of studies and on the grade levels set up in a particular school system. Requisition forms in the hands of teachers must also provide for making requisition for materials for specific purposes on specific grade levels so that the use of the materials may be constructively supervised.

The Edinburgh Scholastic Inquiry, reported in the *Scottish Educational Journal of Edinburgh* in its November 11, 1932, issue, contains some pertinent conclusions which serve as a guide to those who are responsible for relating the motion picture to the curriculum.

1. Explanations should be as short as possible and drawn up in clear and simple terms. They should also remain on the screen a sufficient amount of time for the spectators to read them in comfort.

2. It would also be of use if the projection apparatus could be made to work backwards so that more important parts could be seen twice or the whole repeated.

3. No single film should contain too much didactic matter. Explanatory maps are necessary when showing geographical films or films of different countries.

4. Talking films should not have any musical accompaniment.

5. All the tricks and devices made use of in theatrical cinematography should also be utilized in didactic films, when found necessary and advisable.

6. Serial films might be useful for subjects that cannot be completed in one film.

Here is a large field for careful consideration. Some commendable work has been done. Much remains to be done. A committee of this Department could summarize what has been done, evaluate the same, and secure publication. This committee could also contact, for the Department, the individuals and the institutions that are currently making contributions to this field and in some way make these contributions available for school systems.

Department of Vocational Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION was organized as the industrial section at Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1875. See *Proceedings*, 1875:100. The name was changed in 1890 to the Department of Industrial and Manual Training. See *Proceedings* 1890:758. In 1899 the name was changed to the Department of Manual Training. See *Proceedings*, 1899:556. In 1914 the name was changed to the Department of Vocational Training and Practical Arts. See *Proceedings* 1914:565. Since 1919 it has been known as the Department of Vocational Education. This Department cooperates with the National Vocational Guidance Association and with the National Society for Vocational Education.

The officers of this Department for the year 1933-34 are: *President*, R. W. Selvidge, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.; *Secretary*, Howard L. Briggs, Director of Vocational Education, Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1914:565-624	1918:249-269	1922:1465-1483	1926:964- 996	1930:931-954
1915:815-846	1919:271-279	1923:1025-1043	1927:971-1006	1931:965-994
1916:461-516	1920:269-270	1924: 987-1015	1928:971-1003	1932:801-815
1917:431-473	1921:851-858	1925: 872- 912	1929:945- 972	

FACING A NEW DAY

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Today every thinking person is keenly aware of new movements, new conditioning factors and impending changes which promise to modify every vital aspect of contemporary life; and all are earnestly trying to penetrate the mists which envelop the scene ahead to know how best to prepare for the new day which seems both inevitable and imminent.

With the limitations of vision which handicap us, the only means available for perceiving probable future conditions is to relate presentday life to that of a comparable period of the past, and from this relationship to try to determine the direction in which we seem to be moving. We unhesitatingly choose the decades immediately following the great Civil War for those years exhibit conditions strikingly similar to those of today, and the consequences of conditions then existing are highly suggestive of what we may expect during the next two or three decades. In some respects the years between 1870 and 1890 are the most remarkable in all our history. The country had just emerged from a terrible war that had taxed the strength of the nation, but it also had served to stimulate industry and commerce, in a large part of the country, to a vigor and growth undreamed of during the relatively leisurely years before 1860. Transportation, building, and manufacture grew with unprecedented speed, and the old spirit of adventure which had hitherto expressed itself in pioneering, exploration, and Indian fighting in the little-known West now discharged its energy in the creating of great commercial and industrial projects. But the expansion of credit and the unrestrained optimism and recklessness of that frenzied era produced their inevitable fruits, and the whole country was plunged, during 1873, into the darkness and utter despair of an awful panic and depression, a depression in almost all its details amazingly like the one from which we are now beginning to emerge. But it was what happened during and immediately following the depression that laid the foundations of American industrial supremacy. It was during those years that the modern movement of industrial education was born.

Organized, purposeful industrial education came both as an educational reform and as an answer to a great economic need. It brought a new life and vigor to the schools, and played a large part in the transformation of the schools of this nation from institutions for the special education of the privileged few to popular and effective agencies of universal, democratic education. It contributed in no small measure to the development of a school system which has been able to lift the common level of a great nation to a height never before reached in the history of civilization, and which enabled this people to weather the recent economic storm without revolution or even a serious disturbance. And now once more the nation faces a new day and we shall be wise to consider carefully what the signs are, and as students of industrial education to try to prepare for the approaching changes which may be indicated.

As in the 1870's, 1880's, and 1890's, so today great new industries and mechanical developments are in the making. It is probable that we are too close to our day fully to realize the magnitude and meaning of the changes which are occurring. Is it too much to expect that the great Century of Progress Exposition now in progress will prove to be as epoch-making in the realms of industry and education as was that other marvelous centennial exposition, the World's Fair of 1876? That event marked the end of an age for us, and the beginning of Modern America. The signs are not lacking which point to this year's being the first stage of another new industrial era. Consider, for example, only three or four of the most familiar fields of industry represented in the Century of Progress Exposition, namely, aviation, rail transportation, communications, the automobile, and electric illumination.

We are concerned primarily, however, with the possible changes in industrial education in the new day facing us. Will technological developments eliminate the need for human skill and technical knowledge? Obviously they will not. The probabilities are just the opposite. Skills will change, old occupations requiring skill will die, and others will be split up into narrow specialties, as in all the past. But also, as in all the past, new occupations requiring skill are sure to rise. Both the consumer and the producer of industrial products will increasingly need both skill and technical knowledge. Every essential factor in modern life implies the increasing exercise of skill and the conscious application of science to the daily work of the world.

As processes and machines become progressively more complex and rapid the safety of materials, machines, and men requires intelligence, judgment, and skill in increasing degrees on the part of those who operate machines as well as those who repair and those who direct. American industry learns with amazing slowness all its lessons which pertain to its personnel, but at last it is beginning to see the extravagance of labor that is cheap because it is untrained and lacking in judgment and understanding. Partly for this reason it is increasingly refusing to employ children, and more than ever before in its history it is giving attention to programs of personnel training. The changing attitude toward child labor which is even now producing a revolution in the constitution and policies of the public school, offers to industrial education a greater enlarged opportunity for vital service and a challenge to greater effectiveness in its methods and programs of instruction.

At the upper levels of industry the highly technical nature of nearly every division of work requires increasingly exacting technical training of an order never before demanded by manufacturing processes; and the insistent demand for improvement in both process and product places a premium upon the highest possible technical efficiency. High technical efficiency is not only a need of engineers and research scientists, but increasingly it is needed by those who purchase, who install, who repair, and who supervise the operation of machines and industrial appliances which are the products of research and refined technical development. Not only must specialized knowledge be greater but the breadth of understanding upon which it is built must be greater. It is from the breadth of technical understanding and variety of ex-

periences that both judgment and versatility are derived, and these are the prime requisites of modern industry.

Versatility in industrial workers will very probably be a highly important quality in the new day toward which we are moving. Sudden changes of processes and of products have become almost the rule in the modern factory, and the worker, of whatever level, who is unable to adjust himself quickly to new tasks and conditions of labor is of little value in this period of economic history. It is this demand for versatility and intelligence which constitutes the most significant new factor to be dealt with by industrial education as we face the new day.

When the modern industrial education movement took definite form during the 1880's and 1890's, curiously enough, among its aims were the very qualities here set forth as constituting the new factor to be dealt with. The vocational education movement which got under way during the first decade of this century stressed specific training for specific jobs. But now we face once more the earlier situation which the fathers of the old manual training movement sensed in their day. There are, however, certain new conditions to be met in the present and the probable future. Among them are the large numbers to be taught and trained, rapid change in industry, and the progressive increase in the application of science to productive processes. Hence we seem, today, to face the need for a type of industrial education which is fully cognizant of and in step with the determining factors of modern industry, but which has much the same philosophy underlying it which the leaders of the 1880's possessed and upon which they established the modern industrial education movement.

Much progress has been made in the field of industrial education since the manual training movement was inaugurated in 1880. Unfortunately the manual training movement and the vocational education movement remained antagonistic for a quarter of a century, developing almost wholly independently of each other. But notwithstanding this attitude of the one toward the other, each was inevitably influenced by the other. Now, modern industry, and very probably the industry of the new day, greatly need both of these types of industrial education. Hence it appears that the immediate problem of industrial education as it faces the new day is that of an intelligent coordination of the two great movements of industrial education each of which has already so heavily contributed in its own realm to modern education and modern economic progress.

We face the new day with ample means of meeting adequately its industrial education requirements, if only we see the problem clearly, and are both able and willing so to reorganize and inform our program of study and work as to produce the requisite technical understanding and industrial versatility. Let us, then, recast the industrial arts courses of our junior and senior high schools so that they will contain much more richness of scientific and technical material which will be taught in close relationship to the manual processes performed. Let us teach something of the social and economic meanings of the processes and products of school shop and of industry.

Let us give more attention to the development of habits of analysis and achievement and the growth of self-confidence and the powers of self-improvement. Let us enlarge the range of experiences provided in the school shops and drafting rooms to the end that breadth of understanding and versatility may be acquired. When the proper time in a young person's career for specialization arrives, let us build it upon broad foundations more quickly and efficiently than we now do. Let us provide more generally for the rapid retraining and effective extension of knowledge of adult workers who are unable quickly to adjust themselves to the swiftly occurring changes of industry and modern society. And let us coordinate all the nation's resources of industrial education, both those of the schools and those of the trades and industries, for the training of all workers at all levels and of all ages and conditions.

If we do these things we shall doubtless be able to face the new day with confidence and the feeling that industrial education is fully alive to the trends and needs of this most interesting and pregnant age of all history.

REALIZING OUR OBJECTIVES

ROBERT W. SELVIDGE, ACTING DEAN, COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING; AND
PROFESSOR OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI,
COLUMBIA, MO.

The individual is what he is because of his natural endowment plus his experience. Every change in the individual, good or bad, must come thru experiences and their interpretation. In no other way can the potential capacity of the individual be developed. If the experiences are well chosen and wisely interpreted, the development will be desirable; if unwisely chosen or improperly interpreted, the development will be undesirable.

Learning is the intellectual reaction to experience, and in order to secure desirable learning it is necessary to provide selected experiences and arrange a situation in which there will be as little interference from undesirable ones as possible. Before we can select the experiences wisely, it is necessary for us to have a very definite statement of the desirable attitudes, habits, ideals, and accomplishments which we wish to develop. Such a statement constitutes a list of our objectives.

In making a statement of our objectives in the field of industrial arts, it is not necessary to list every known human virtue. Rather, we should list only those things for which we are willing to assume a large measure of responsibility and toward the development of which we can provide reasonably adequate experiences.

In preparing this report we have made a very careful study of the vast number of major and minor objectives in the industrial arts and we have tried to analyze them and combine the ideas into brief and definite statements without vagueness or obscurity. We have stated only those for which the industrial arts teacher should himself assume a measure of responsibility and which we believe can be realized, to a measurable degree by the proper

selection, presentation and interpretation of experiences. It is important that an objective should be regarded as a definite statement of our purpose and we should feel under obligations to provide experiences which would make a definite contribution to that objective. We must also be sure that the experiences are presented and interpreted in such a way as to give the result desired. The potential value of an experience is not sufficient, its value must be realized.

We have thought of these objectives as the attitudes, habits, skills, information, ideals and accomplishments which we expect the boy to have in some measure as a result of his experiences in the field of industrial arts. These, we believe, will contribute toward making him a happy, useful and successful citizen, the thing we wish him to be.

The objectives of industrial arts work are as follows:

1. To develop in each pupil an active interest in industrial life and in methods of production and distribution.
2. To develop the ability to select wisely, care for, and use properly the things we buy.
3. To develop an appreciation of good workmanship and good design.
4. To develop an attitude of pride or interest in one's ability to do useful things.
5. To develop a feeling of self-reliance and confidence in one's ability to care for one's self in an unusual situation.
6. To develop the habit of an orderly method of procedure in the performance of any task.
7. To develop a habit of careful, thoughtful work without loitering or wasting time (industry).
8. To develop an attitude of readiness to assist others when they need help and to join in group undertakings (cooperation).
9. To develop a thoughtful attitude in the matter of making things easy and pleasant for others such as keeping things in order, putting tools away in good condition and always doing a full share of the work where others are involved.
10. To develop a knowledge and understanding of mechanical drawing, the interpretation of conventions of drawings and working diagrams, and the ability to express one's ideas by means of a drawing.
11. To develop the elementary skills in the use of the more common tools and machines in modifying and handling materials and an understanding of some of the more common construction problems.

FITTING THE STUDENT TO A CHANGING WORLD

WILLIAM J. BOGAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CHICAGO, ILL.

When the public, in rather recent times, demanded that the schools take over the task of providing vocational education as a substitute for the old-time apprenticeship system it thought of the school as it had been for generations, a self-contained institution, isolated from the world and slow to accept ideas

of progress. Nevertheless in the minds of many people schools were schools and only in the school could formal education be carried on. They assumed that this new type of work would be developed within the walls of the school by the methods of tradition. Today, however, the efficient school regards the entire world as its field of action. The raw student material comes from everywhere and the finished product goes everywhere. The world takes or leaves this product, and to the extent that the students are successful in meeting the requirements of society the school is considered successful.

Every student of human welfare from Plato to Dewey knows that all dreams of world betterment will ultimately be realized, if ever, not thru war or treaties, not thru legislation, not thru propaganda, but thru the teaching of better ways to the rising youth of each generation. The problems encountered in the teaching of these better ways are as complex as life itself. The aims of education are many, but aside from the training in citizenship so necessary in a democracy one of the most important aims is to train individuals to meet effectively diverse situations in an ever-changing society. All systems of education fail of their purpose unless they take full cognizance of three factors:

1. Individuals, with their problems of uneven ability endowment, entailing aspects of human behavior not easily analyzed nor fully understood.
2. Society with its vacillating social and economic pattern, generating forces not easily recognized nor controlled.
3. The schools, with their limitations of formalism and routine, hampered by tradition and tending like most institutions to become static and somewhat isolated from the society of which they should be an intimate part.

The problems of better ways are colossal, but the concerted efforts of educators to discover solutions are meeting with considerable success. The school can become the agency, in fact, must become the agency thru which society will remold itself for the achievement of better conditions of life.

Today society is unstable financially, spiritually, and emotionally, a condition radically different from that of the Middle Ages when apprenticeship training was common and very efficient. To a great extent education is responsible for the change. Apparently it has overdone the "stimulation of discontent." In a previous day lack of education meant lack of standards, lack of conveniences, lack of ideals. The great majority of the people were uneducated and hence the weak climbing and stretching for higher standards of living placed little strain upon society. Today everyone is educated. Everyone knows his rights and how to maintain them. The lowliest, the most ignorant, is ever ready to hitch his wagon to a star in the belief that a kind Providence will land him lightly in the lap of the gods. Education for college in particular has given false notions to many who lack the ability, the aptitude or even the desire for those qualities of the spirit which the college is expected to provide. After receiving the best type of education that the nation knows how to provide, many of the graduates of our schools are like the man all dressed up but with no place to go except to the wake of his hopes and dreams.

To lessen the tremendous waste of money and energy inevitable in this hit or miss system of education, guidance of the highest type should be provided as soon as the pupil begins to appreciate his responsibilities to himself and to society for the making of a self-supporting independent citizen of high grade. The task of guidance is especially difficult today for society is a seething cauldron filled with a mixture of outworn theories, wild hypotheses, memories of the good old days, miseries of the present, hopes for the future, and facts that are not so. Hundreds of thousands of men and women who had been given an ideal training for their life occupations are saying with eyes and hands and voice: "Brother, can you spare me a dime?" Into what occupation shall we guide the youth of today? First we should guide ourselves into a belief in the future, a belief in mankind, a resolve to destroy the philosophy of defeatism. By making these beliefs our own we may be in a position to guide with some intelligence the youth of the present and future. One of the first steps in guidance should be to give the student a knowledge of his own abilities, aptitudes, and desires. He may underrate his abilities but he is more likely to overrate them. A system that will show him rather accurately his own range of possibilities will enable him to do for himself a large part of this guidance. When he has given himself a fair rating he is ready for information, theory, and advice. He should learn of the conditions and the rewards of the occupations for which he appears to be fitted. Sooner or later he must make a choice. If he does not fate will make it for him.

Altho we live in what appears to be a rapidly changing civilization we must admit that the foundation principles of this civilization are relatively stable. Modern vocational education, for instance, is based upon principles hoary with age, principles well illustrated in the apprenticeship system of the Middle Ages. The public in those days took a vital interest in the instruction of the pupil, for if the master failed in his duty to the apprentice he thereby failed in his duty to the public. This interest of the public in the supervision of trade education is an indication of the advanced thought of the Middle Ages on the subjects of education and industry. Discoveries, explorations, inventions, education, and various forces of the industrial revolution finally drove master and apprentice from the stage and substituted the modern employer and the untrained employee for whom society accepts little responsibility. Not till restrictions on foreign labor became serious did the employer interest himself in the education and training of employees. He accepted no responsibility for present or future training. Even now, society is not as conscious of its responsibility for industrial training as was society in the Middle Ages. When action of some kind finally became necessary the schools were chosen to accomplish the task.

The task of the schools has been made difficult by so-called progress. The economic changes made by inventions and scientific discoveries are so numerous and so far-reaching in their effects that the world is dazed by the results. In other days it was possible to make a slow adjustment to new conditions tho the adjustment was usually painful and oft-times tragic. Now all is changed. Inventions have made man an idler on an empty stomach. Less than

twenty years ago vocational education meant education and training in the skilled trades. Today those trades are passing or have passed, and vocational education is entering a new phase. Thousands of specialized occupations which require unusual ability and special training are taking the places of the old standardized occupations—to what extent is not known. If new machines produce new wants and higher standards of living, society will gradually accustom itself to the change. In the meantime, however, old systems are crumbling and new ones must be constructed to take their places.

If vocational education, therefore, is to minister to changing needs, it cannot set itself up as a static institution. Vocational education must look upon itself as a clearing-house receiving and passing on all the educative forces of the community that may aid the individual in adjusting himself to a society and an economic system in constant flux. With the disappearance of juvenile labor and the disappearance of old occupations, society is faced with the problem of training and retraining for vocation and avocation and leisure. If the schools do not educate and care for the youth of the land what will become of them? Society today is facing a choice for youth. Will it choose more education or will it let youth take the road to idleness and crime?

The Middle Ages believed in the principle that the public has a vital interest in the education of youth above and beyond the selfish needs of employer or apprentice. The same principle might be followed to advantage today. It took America, under a slower civilization, many years to accept the idea of compulsory school attendance in the interest of the community, but in a faster moving civilization, under the whip of a depression such as the world has never known, society may be forced to consider state supervision of training for industry.

Plainly when society, guided by its blind leaders, has wrecked the schools of the nation it may awaken to the need for a free public education far beyond the compulsory school age so common in most of the states today. If the public feels that it cannot support the schools it may accept the alternative of idleness or the penitentiary. Each has its good points. Idleness may develop the free spirit, the wanderlust, the disregard of limitation of time or space. The penitentiary provides discipline of a kind which may be excellent for certain types of people. The public, however, should never lose sight of the fact that these alternatives are more expensive than education, to say nothing of their terrible effects upon morale.

World Federation of Education Associations

THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS was the outgrowth of a World Conference on Education which was called by the Committee on Foreign Relations of the National Education Association to meet at San Francisco in July, 1923. The first biennial meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations was held in Edinburgh, Scotland, in July, 1925. The Second Biennial Conference was held in Toronto, Canada, in August, 1927. The third conference was held in Geneva, Switzerland, August, 1929; the fourth conference took place in August, 1931; at Denver, Colorado; and the fifth conference took place in August, 1933, in Dublin, Ireland. The officers for the years 1933-35 are: *President*, Fred Mander, London, England; *Vicepresidents*: Paul Monroe, Istanbul, Turkey; Thomas Henderson, Edinburgh, Scotland; P. W. Kuo, Shanghai, China; *Secretary-General*, Augustus O. Thomas, Washington, D. C., U. S. A.; *Secretary*, Charles H. Williams, Columbia, Missouri, U. S. A.; *Treasurer*, E. A. Hardy, Ontario, Canada.

Facts relating to the establishment of the World Federation of Education Associations and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:176-182	1924:272- 274	1927:1007-1016
1922:312-317	1925:913- 927	1928:1005-1012
1923:106, 402-424	1926:996-1003	1929: 975- 988
		1931: 985- 994

THE DUBLIN CONFERENCE

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, SECRETARY-GENERAL, WORLD FEDERATION OF
EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Ten years of ups and downs of the economic and political world have passed into history and five biennial meetings have been held by the World Federation since that dramatic incident at San Francisco in 1923 when the Federation was born. These meetings have been stimulating and have brought opportunity to the leaders of education to sit together around the "green cloth" and exchange ideas, tell what is being done in the various countries in education, and plan what sort of education can do most in the support of a new social order.

At the Dublin meeting, Old Man Depression made himself felt. He has fastened his iron grip upon educational institutions in every civilized country and this strangle hold has taken the breath of life from some institutions and some people, but the World Federation of Education Associations succeeded in breaking that grip. It found itself somewhat lessened in numbers (1100 enrolled, with 100 from the United States) but with the same enthusiasm as has been shown at previous meetings. There was no thought of turning back, no thought of abandoning this great world project. Instead, there seemed greater need for federated education today than ever before. The comparative failures of attempts to hold armaments, commercial, and economic conferences brought a sense of high responsibility to the Dublin meeting and some who were lukewarm became staunch supporters of the movement. Knowledge precedes understanding, and understanding and sympathy precede cooperation.

Yes, there is greater need for the Federation today than ever before. As long as leaders differ in fundamental philosophy, there will be strife and maybe wars. Until men are sufficiently civilized to think more of saving civilization than in saving faces there must be strife. Education must build the foundation upon which economic and arms conferences may build the structure of cooperation. What the world needs is a generation taught the principles of the world community, how to live in an international world, the spirit of broadmindedness and tolerance, taught by teachers who have the vision of a new order.

The Dublin Conference may have lacked in a central theme in the forensic principle of broad, general questions, but what it may have lacked in these, it made up in personalities—dynamic and forceful. The opening meeting was addressed by the President of the Irish Free State, Eamonn de Valera, who after welcoming delegates in the name of the Free State, said "material teachings are useless if they fail to teach the young people to know and conform to the principles that material things and forces subserve." He spoke first in the Irish language (Gaelic), followed by English. He said also that "in the centuries which followed the collapse of the Roman Empire, Ireland was almost the sole refuge of learning in Europe. The missionaries who went forth from her schools at that time took the leading part in evangelizing the barbarian invaders of the West, in teaching them the arts of civilization, and in inspiring in them the love of brotherhood and of peace."

Mrs. Ruth Bryan Owen, who thru the influence of Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart attended the Dublin Conference, was easily the star performer of the occasion. Pity it was that greater use was not made of her presence. The moment she appears on the platform the audience is electrified. You can feel the presence and magnitude of a great woman. There is something of the inherited halo about her which comes from the matchless William Jennings Bryan, but she is great in her own name. What she says is intellectually dramatic. She uses human illustrations in an interesting way. Quiet, modest, dignified, she holds her audience in expectancy and when she is finished the audience has been entertained; it has been informed; it has a new idea; and it is in an active mood, which is the summit of oratory.

In her address at this welcoming meeting Mrs. Owen, in speaking of the necessity of universal education or the right of all men to read, made a telling point when she said that an international diplomatic conference cannot rise higher than the ideals of the lowest unit since a nation votes as a unit and the action must be unanimous.

Mrs. Owen also made it clear that those who were born from the opening of the great war to the present are the part of the generation which adjusts itself to the new day. Those young people are now 20 years old or younger. She illustrated this by an experience of her own. Mrs. Owen was accompanied over the Alps by her young daughter. When she landed she remarked that it was all 'very wonderful.' "What is wonderful?" asked the daughter. "The flight we have just made," said the mother. "But why shouldn't we?" said the daughter, taking the incident as a perfectly natural thing to do.

The address of the president of the Federation must always be a feature and in this instance it was no exception. Paul Monroe said: "There is a common ground where all knowledge has its roots. We should seek to make that ground the heritage of all educated men, and to insure, insofar as might be, that in that sense all men might be educated. To attempt more is to achieve superficiality, or intellectual confusion, and to defeat the purposes of education.

"The most efficient school, therefore, is that which best equips its pupils with knowledge bearing upon the life around them and the circumstances with which they are likely to spend their days, while relating that life to the life of the world—the school which arouses a wholesome spirit of inquiry and creates the power to satisfy it." President Monroe declared that it is not the purpose of education to create a new social order. The business of education is to lay soundly the foundations of society—sound, just, and secure, out of the experience of the past. It might be necessary to look to the schools for leaders if and when a new social order is organized.

The Lord Mayor graced the convention with his presence and proved to be very popular with the delegates. He welcomed the convention to the city and expressed a hope that when they dispersed to their several countries they would carry pleasant memories of the Irish people and that the goodwill and friendship of the nations might be enhanced.

Tomas O'Deirg, minister of education of the Free State, said the people of Ireland were, as a people, engaged in attempting to restore and revive re-

lations with other countries that had been broken off or faded over a long period, and in no respect were they more anxious to preserve and strengthen those relationships than in the sphere of cultural and intellectual endeavor.

Lord Allen of Hurtwood said: "The last time I was a near neighbor of the president of the Irish Free State was when he and I were fellow prisoners of the British government. It is with real respectful joy that I see that noble figure placed at the head of this nation. If I might utter one prayer, without saying things that I ought not to say, it is this, 'May the day soon come when our two peoples may live in mutual freedom and mutual understanding'."

One of the high lights of the convention was a luncheon presided over by Frances Moon Butts (Washington, D. C.), as chairman of one of the divisions of the Department of Social Adjustment thru Education. At this luncheon, J. F. Burke of the Saorstat Department of Education declared "what Mussolini did for Italy, what Roosevelt is doing for America, what our distinguished President Eamonn de Valera is doing for the Saorstat is founded on right principles." Dr. Burke said further it was his firm belief that the extent to which any policy of economic planning aimed at providing the citizens with a full and ample life was the best measurement of its success—"in fine," he said, "to develop such industries as are essential to provide it to the fullest extent with food, clothing, and shelter, and to enable it to usefully employ all of its employable citizens."

The Irish Free State has a great university with three colleges, one at Dublin, one at Galway, and one at Cork. Dennis Coffey, president of the University College, Dublin, in speaking before the general assembly said: "In the World Federation East and West are bound together and the meeting in Dublin is a joy to the Irish teachers." He did not know anywhere else where a teaching body represented so faithfully, and with such enthusiasm, its own people as that of Ireland.

Speaking of the culture of humanities as a barrier to war, Selma Borchardt (Washington, D. C.), who presided over the section on social adjustment, said the object of the discussion would be the school as medium of interpreting and expressing the cultural life of the community, and as a reflection of that cultural life. In America the culture of the humanities in the classroom has been dealt with in an exceedingly practical manner.

"World conditions showed the necessity for the development of the culture of the humanities in the schools in every country. If educated people had done their duty the catastrophe of the world war would not have taken place."

Mrs. M. Johnston (Alabama) contended that everybody ought to dance and sing. One could not hate his neighbor if one sang with him. She declared that while world understanding is an intellectual process we must develop the emotional part to the extent that we must live within the light of our understanding.

Hugh Guthrie (Scotland) said one of the biggest steps in educational adjustment would be to get the salaries of teachers financed from the na-

tional exchequer. In Britain and the Free State a portion was contributed by the central exchequers and the balance by local authorities, but in Northern Ireland the central exchequer financed the salaries of teachers, plus a small percentage of administrative expenditure.

D. D. McDonald (Canada) mentioned that in his country the greatest portion of the educational cost came from the local authorities, with the result that when a local authority wanted to economize the teachers suffered.

Mrs. Hugh D. Bradford (U. S. A.) opened a discussion on "Professional Guidance of Voluntary Workers in a Mental Hygiene Program." A mental hygiene program, she said, which depended upon home and school cooperation, and was based on mutual understanding, was naturally, one which would emphasize the educational side of this work, leaving the more technical medical problems to the psychiatrist, who might also be the consultant and adviser of the educational program.

The fundamental purposes of a mental hygiene program would be to seek: (1) to understand the child; (2) to stimulate and guide his emotional and intellectual development; (3) to prevent contact with all home, school, and community influences that would deter his normal, wholesome mental growth; (4) to connect such mental disorders as might be within their control by understanding and readjustments; and (5) to create a consciousness on the part of the community to its responsibility in curative work.

M. L. Combs (Virginia) explained how a state looks after the health of its children and detailed a program for the state of Virginia and explained the 5-point system.

W. Carson Ryan (Washington, D. C.), presided over the first meeting of the Illiteracy Section and Annie C. Woodward (Massachusetts) over the second. In speaking before this section, Caroline P. Stephens (Louisiana) gave a very humanistic story of her experience in teaching a moonlight school. The story of her work was both fascinating and dramatic. She said, "In Louisiana there has been a great deal of illiteracy, and great work has been done to eradicate it by Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart (chairman of that Section), who was unfortunately unable to attend the Conference.

Madame M. Comas (Barcelona) recited the story of the struggle against illiteracy in Spain. She reported that very effective work was being done by young volunteer students who traveled from Madrid around the country villages. Only in Madrid, however, was the anti-illiteracy movement conducted under government supervision.

Maria de la Luz Grouas (Mexico) reported that they had 7000 rural schools, many in places very difficult of access in the jungle and mountains, and teachers had to be heroic in order to reach them.

D. Subotic (Yugo-Slavia) reported that the number of schools in Yugo-Slavia had been trebled in ten years.

W. Carson Ryan (Washington, D. C.), presiding over the afternoon session, said that the people known as "Red Indians" were rapidly adapting themselves to modern living.

M. L. Manich Jumsai (Siam) reported that in his country they had had a Compulsory Education Act for 20 years. Their Buddhist temples had

always been great seats of learning, and the priests cooperated with the state.

Speaking on the need for world cooperation in the Department of Teachers' Organizations, E. W. Jones (Wales) said some extremely good results had come about as the result of its formation, including the closer cooperation of educationists from different countries. Was the Federation, however, attempting to do too much? It was trying to solve so many problems at once that one was inclined to ask whether it was capable of carrying on the laudable work that it had set itself to do.

G. D. Dunkerley (England) said that secondary teachers in Great Britain hoped for a greater advance in the status of teachers all over the world. It was also felt essential that a too-imperialistic point of view should not prevail among the younger generation.

T. Frisby (Ireland) thought that there should be a worldwide survey of all the problems which had to be dealt with. He thought that matters contained in textbooks, which were calculated to promote racial animosities should be done away with.

Jessie Gray (Pennsylvania) expressed her appreciation for the system obtaining in Ireland as regards retirement, and hoped it would be adopted later on in her own country.

A. O. Thomas (Washington, D. C.) said that after the war there was so much feeling that no common ground could be found that would bring the nations of the world together, but it was thought that some efforts should be made to find a starting point. The world needed understanding, sympathy, and cooperation. As a consequence, the World Federation came into being, for education provides a universal basis for understanding. He said nationalism is stronger today than it has been. There are two drifts in presentday civilization: one is the political drift which is struggling toward a national world; the other is a scientific or technological which is fast bringing the nations of the world into one neighborhood or an internationalized world. This makes cooperation essential.

Mrs. A. H. Reeve (Pennsylvania), who presided over the Department of Parents and Teachers said it was the conviction of the Federation that the child was naturally free from prejudice and would readily work or play with other children, regardless of race, creed, or color, and that the conflicts arising when many nationalities were grouped in one school or community, were due to unreasoning antagonisms felt and promoted by adults. Six years had passed since the first step was taken in the international field, and they felt they had a definite contribution to make to the welfare of childhood.

Jessie Gray (Pennsylvania) was one of the last speakers of the convention. When asked what we get out of this Federation, she said, "we should rather ask what we put into and what services can we render." She spoke as follows:

"Ireland welcomed us with her blue skies, fleecy clouds, lovely lakes, glorious trees, and lawns. Heaven's reflex, Killarney, will long delight us when it flashes upon the inward eye and we remember, across seas, Irish generosity, geniality, and radiant hospitality. Human history began in a garden. To restore us to the presence of the Creator, we must have the calm, the cool of

the day, the fragrance, the companionship, the common happy meeting place. The seeds of the World Federation will transplant in many widely scattered places human truths that are immutable. Upon friendly understanding, mutual regard, tolerance, desire to help, and a willingness to let each work out the same problems in a different way, depend the happiness of the human family. To meet delegates from many nations and so cement a unity of endeavor in producing better life is the seed of future peace and happiness in the family of nations. The soul of the convention is 'Split the sky in two, and let the face of God shine thru.' The hospitality of Ireland did the same thing to bless the nations gathered in convention. It prophesied greater friendship, more devoted stewardship, and the eventual brotherhood of man."

E. Ruth Pyrtle (Nebraska) presided at the breakfast in honor of Mrs. Ruth Bryan Owen. "The World Federation," she said, "appreciates the support of strong personalities like the guest of the morning." W. T. Longshore (Missouri) told the Herman-Jordan Committees that there was definite need for helps in all levels of school work looking to more complete knowledge as a basis of understanding among the nations.

Rufus B. von KleinSmid (California) presided over the joint session of the Herman-Jordan Committees in preparing a semi-final report for the delegate assembly. The meeting developed an interesting discussion. Those committees virtually constituted the peace section of the Federation altho all subjects may have a bearing. The committee consisted of W. T. Longshore (Missouri), Rufus B. von KleinSmid (California), and Augustus O. Thomas (Washington, D. C.). They prepared the following resolution which was presented to the representative assembly and passed by them:

This W. F. E. A. commends and approves the work of the Herman-Jordan Committees in gathering together valuable and educational material to be used for the purpose of furthering international understanding and goodwill. It recognizes the almost impossible problem of international diplomatic cooperation until thru education there is built up an informed "world opinion." It, therefore, recommends:

1. That the material assembled under the direction of these committees, if and when approved by the Board of Directors, be printed as soon after its preparation as funds permit. Such publication should, however, be supplementary to and not in the form of textbooks.

2. That these committees be requested to continue their activities.

The social functions of the Dublin meeting were of an unusual character and distinctly portrayed the Irish character and hospitality. The Conference opened with a reception. Later in the session, President de Valera and Mrs. de Valera gave a garden party at the Viceregal Mansion. Mr. Sterling, minister from the United States to the Irish Free State, and Mrs. Sterling also gave a charming afternoon to the American delegates. The Right Honorable the Lord Mayor opened the Mansion House for a reception and running lunch. Many of the citizens of Dublin opened their spacious homes and gardens to the delegates. The local committee, headed by T. J. O'Connell, took the convention in a body on an excursion to the Bay of Glendalough where St. Kevan in an early century established his monastery and cloister, and also to the Bay of Avoca, the scene of much of Thomas Moore's inspiration.

Associational Records and Information

Associational Records and Information

1857—1870

THE NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Organized August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

PURPOSE—*To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States.*

The name of the Association was changed at Cleveland, Ohio, on August 15, 1870, to the "National Educational Association."

1870—1907

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

Incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, February 24, 1886, under the name, "National Education Association," which was changed to "National Educational Association," by certificate filed November 6, 1886.

1907—

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Incorporated under a special act of Congress, approved June 30, 1906, to succeed the "National Educational Association." The charter was accepted and bylaws were adopted at the Fiftieth Anniversary Convention held July 10, 1907, at Los Angeles, California.

ACT OF INCORPORATION

AN ACT TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

SECTION 1. That the following-named persons, who are now officers and directors and trustees of the National Educational Association, a corporation organized in the year eighteen hundred and eighty-six, under the Act of General Incorporation of the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, viz:

Nathan C. Schaeffer, Eliphalet Oram Lyte, John W. Lansinger, of Pennsylvania; Isaac W. Hill, of Alabama; Arthur J. Matthews, of Arizona; John H. Hinemon, George B. Cook, of Arkansas; Joseph O'Connor, Josiah L. Pickard, Arthur H. Chamberlain, of California; Aaron Gove, Ezekiel H. Cook, Lewis C. Greenlee, of Colorado; Charles H. Keyes, of Connecticut; George W. Twitmyer, of Delaware; J. Ormond Wilson, William T. Harris, Alexander T. Stuart, of the District of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; William M. Slaton, of Georgia; Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, Albert G. Lane, Charles I. Parker, John W. Cook, Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; Nebraska Cropsey, Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, A. V. Jewett, Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; Warren Easton, of	List of Incorporators
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Louisiana; John S. Locke, of Maine; M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; Charles W. Eliot, Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; William F. Phelps, Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; F. Louis Soldan, James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, William H. Maxwell, Charles R. Skinner, Albert P. Marble, James C. Byrnes, of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickham, of Oklahoma; Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Langer, of South Dakota; Eugene F. Turner, of Tennessee; Lloyd E. Wolf, of Texas; David H. Christensen, of Utah; Henry O. Wheeler, Isaac Thomas, of Vermont; Joseph L. Jarman, of Virginia; Edward T. Mathes, of Washington; T. Marcellus Marshall, Lucy Robinson, of West Virginia; Lorenzo D. Harvey, of Wisconsin; Thomas T. Tynan, of Wyoming; Cassia Patton, of Alaska; Frank H. Ball, of Porto Rico; Arthur F. Griffiths, of Hawaii; C. H. Maxson, of the Philippine Islands; and such other persons as now are or may hereafter be associated with them as officers or members of said Association, are hereby incorporated and declared to be a body corporate of the District of Columbia by the name of the "National Education Association of the United States," and by that name shall be known and have perpetual succession with the powers, limitations, and restrictions herein contained.

SEC. 2. That the purpose and object of the said corporation shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States. This corporation shall include the National Council of Education and the following departments, and such others as may hereafter be created by organization or consolidation, to wit: The Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Normal Schools; third, of Elementary Education; fourth, of Higher Education; fifth, of Manual Training; sixth, of Art Education; seventh, of Kindergarten Education; eighth, of Music Education; ninth, of Secondary Education; tenth, of Business Education; eleventh, of Child Study; twelfth, of Physical Education; thirteenth, of Natural Science Instruction; fourteenth, of School Administration; fifteenth, the Library Department; sixteenth, of Special Education; seventeenth, of Indian Education; the powers and duties and the numbers and names of these departments and of the National Council of Education may be changed or abolished at the pleasure of the corporation, as provided in its bylaws.

SEC. 3. That the said corporation shall further have power to have and to use a common seal, and to alter and change the same at its pleasure; to sue or to be sued in any court of the United States, or other court of competent jurisdiction; to make bylaws not inconsistent with the provisions of this act or of the Constitution of the United States; to take or receive, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest, or purchase, any real or personal estate, and to hold, grant, convey, hire or lease the same for the purpose of its incorporation; and to accept and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any educational purpose within the objects of the corporation.

SEC. 4. That all real property of the corporation within the District of Columbia which shall be used by the corporation for the educational or other purposes of the corporation as aforesaid other than the purposes of producing income, and all personal property and funds of the corporation held, used, or invested for educational purposes aforesaid, or to produce income to be used for such purposes, shall be exempt from taxation; *provided*, however, that this exemption shall not apply to any property of the corporation which shall not be used for, or the income of which shall not be applied to, the educational purposes of the corporation; and, *provided further*, That the corporation shall annually file, with the Commissioner of Education of the United States, a report in writing, stating in detail the property, real and personal, held by the corporation, and the expenditure or other use or disposition of the same, or the income thereof, during the preceding year.

Property to be
Tax-Exempt

SEC. 5. That the membership of the said corporation shall consist of three classes of members—viz, active, associate, and corresponding—whose qualifications, terms of membership, rights, and obligations shall be prescribed by the bylaws of the corporation.

Members

SEC. 6. That the officers of the said corporation shall be a President, twelve Vicepresidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, an Executive Committee, and a Board of Trustees.

Officers

The Board of Directors shall consist of the President, the First Vicepresident, the Secretary, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and one additional member from each state, territory, or district, to be elected by the active members for the term of one year, or until their successors are chosen, and of all Life Directors of the National Educational Association. The United States Commissioner of Education, and all former Presidents of the said Association now living, and all future Presidents of the Association hereby incorporated, at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the Board of Directors for life. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the corporation, excepting those herein intrusted to the Board of Trustees; and shall possess such other powers as shall be conferred upon them by the bylaws of the corporation.

Board of
Directors

The Executive Committee shall consist of five members, as follows: the President of the Association, the First Vicepresident, the Treasurer, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, and a member of the Association, to be chosen annually by the Board of Directors, to serve one year. The said committee shall have authority to represent and to act for the Board of Directors in the intervals between the meetings of that body, to the extent of carrying out the legislation adopted by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

Executive
Committee

The Board of Trustees shall consist of four members elected by the Board of Directors for the term of four years, and the President of the Association, who shall be a member *ex officio* during his term of office. At the first meeting of the Board of Directors, held during the annual meeting of the Association at which they were elected, they shall elect one trustee for the term of four years. All vacancies occurring in said Board of Trustees, whether by resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the Board of Directors for the unexpired term; and the absence of a trustee from two successive annual meetings of the board shall forfeit his membership.

Board of
Trustees

SEC. 7. That the invested fund now known as the "Permanent Fund of the National Educational Association," when transferred to the corporation hereby created, shall be held by such corporation as a Permanent Fund and shall be in

**Permanent
Fund**

charge of the Board of Trustees, who shall provide for the safekeeping and investment of such fund, and of all other funds which the corporation may receive by donation, bequest, or devise. No part of the principal of such Permanent Fund or its accretions shall be expended, except by a two thirds vote of the active members of the Association present at any annual meeting, upon the recommendation of the Board of Trustees, after such recommendation has been approved by vote of the Board of Directors, and after printed notice of the proposed expenditure has been mailed to all active members of the Association. The income of the Permanent Fund shall be used only to meet the cost of maintaining the organization of the Association and of publishing its annual volume of *Proceedings*, unless the terms of the donation, bequest, or devise shall otherwise specify, or the Board of Directors shall otherwise order. It shall also be the duty of the Board

**Duties of
Trustees**

of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment of all bills approved by the Board of Directors, or by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors. When practicable, the Board of Trustees shall invest, as part of the Permanent Fund, all surplus funds exceeding \$500 that shall remain in the hands of the Treasurer after paying the expenses of the Association for the previous year, and providing for the fixed expenses and for all appropriations made by the Board of Directors for the ensuing year.

**Election of
Secretary**

The Board of Trustees shall elect the Secretary of the Association, who shall be Secretary of the Executive Committee, and shall fix the compensation and the term of his office for a period not to exceed four years.

SEC. 8. That the principal office of the said corporation shall be in the city of Washington, D. C.; *provided*, That the meeting of the corporation, its officers, committees, and departments, may be held, and that its business may be transacted, and an office or offices may be maintained, elsewhere, within the United States, as may be determined by the Board of Directors, or otherwise in accordance with the bylaws.

**Location of
Office**

SEC. 9. That the charter, constitution, and bylaws of the National Educational Association shall continue in full force and effect until the charter granted by this act shall be accepted by such Association at the next annual meeting of the Association, and until new bylaws shall be adopted; and that the present officers, directors, and trustees of said Association shall continue to hold office and perform their respective duties as such until the expiration of terms for which they were severally elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected. That at such annual meeting the active members of the National Educational Association then present, may organize and proceed to accept the charter granted by this act and adopt bylaws, to elect officers to succeed those whose terms have expired or are about to expire, and generally to organize the "National Education Association of the United States"; and that the Board of Trustees of the corporation hereby incorporated shall thereupon, if the charter granted by this act be accepted, receive, take over, and enter into possession, custody, and management of all property, real and personal, of the corporation heretofore known as the National Educational Association incorporated as aforesaid, under the Revised Statutes of the District of Columbia, and all its rights, contracts, claims, and property of every kind and nature whatsoever, and the several officers, directors, and trustees of such

**Acceptance of
This Charter**

last-named Association, or any other person having charge of any of the securities, funds, books or property thereof, real or personal, shall on demand deliver the same to the proper officers, directors, or trustees of the corporation hereby created. *Provided*, That a verified certificate executed by the presiding officer and secretary of such annual meeting, showing the acceptance of the charter granted by this act by the National Educational Association, shall be legal evidence of the fact, when filed with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia; and, *provided further*, That in the event of the failure of the Association to accept the charter granted by this act at said annual meeting then the charter of the National Educational Association and its incorporate existence shall be and are hereby extended until the thirty-first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, and at any time before said date its charter may be extended in the manner and form provided by the general corporation of the District of Columbia.

SEC. 10. That the rights of creditors of the said existing corporation, known as the National Educational Association, shall not in any manner be impaired by the passage of this act, or the transfer of the property heretofore mentioned, nor shall any liability or obligation, or payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, or for any cause existing against the said existing corporation, be released or impaired; and the corporation hereby incorporated is declared to succeed to the obligations and liabilities, and to be held liable to pay and discharge all of its debts, liabilities and contracts of the said corporation so existing, to the same effect as if such new corporation had itself incurred the obligation or liability to pay such debts or damages, and no action or proceeding before any court or tribunal shall be deemed to have abated or been discontinued by reason of this act.

Rights of
Creditors

SEC. 11. That Congress may from time to time alter, repeal, or modify this act of incorporation, but no contract or individual right made or acquired shall thereby be divested or impaired.

Amendments
to Charter

SEC. 12. That said corporation may provide, by amendment to its bylaws, that the powers of the active members exercised at the annual meeting in the election of officers and the transaction of business shall be vested in and exercised by a representative assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed in accordance with the provisions of the bylaws adopted by said corporation.

Creation of
Representative
Assembly

Sections 1-11 were passed by Congress and approved by the President, June 30, 1906. They were accepted and adopted as the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members of the National Educational Association in annual session at Los Angeles, California, July 10, 1907.

Section 12 was passed by Congress and approved by the President of the United States, May 13, 1920, as an amendment to the original act of incorporation. It was accepted and adopted as an amendment to the constitution of the National Education Association of the United States by the active members thereof in annual session at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 9, 1920.

BYLAWS AS AMENDED AT THE ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING OF THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, JULY 6, 1928

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

Wherever the word "State" appears in the proposed amendments to these by-laws it will be understood that State, Territory, or District of the United States is meant.

Membership Defined SECTION 1. The membership of the National Education Association of the United States shall consist of three classes: Active, Associate, and Corresponding, whose qualifications, rights, and obligations shall be as hereinafter prescribed.

SEC. 2. Active members of the Association shall be those actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work.

Obligations and Privileges SEC. 3. The annual dues of an active member shall be \$2, which shall entitle him to attend all meetings of the Association and its several Departments; to receive *The Journal* free and on application, to secure all publications of the Association at a price fixed by the Executive Committee, which shall be the approximate cost. By the payment of annual dues of \$5 an active member shall receive in addition to *The Journal*, without application or other condition, the volume of Proceedings and all other regular publications of the Association, including reports of Committees and all special bulletins and announcements when issued.

Life Members and Life Directors SEC. 4. All life members and life directors shall have all the rights and privileges of active members without the payment of annual dues, and shall receive free without application or condition the publications of the Association.

Associate Members SEC. 5. Associate members of the Association shall be persons who are not actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work, but who are otherwise interested in the promotion of education. The annual dues of an associate member shall be the same as the dues of an active member and he shall have the same rights and privileges, except the right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the Representative Assembly, and to hold office.

Corresponding Members SEC. 6. Eminent educators not residing in America may be elected by the Board of Directors as corresponding members. The number of corresponding members shall not at any time exceed fifty. They shall pay no dues and may receive free the publications of the Association.

Membership Year SEC. 7. The membership year shall be from September 1 to August 31. All membership dues paid during the membership year shall be credited to that year unless otherwise requested.

Payment of Dues SEC. 8. The annual dues of members shall be sent to the Secretary on or before November 1. An active member failing to pay his dues as herein provided shall forfeit the privileges of membership and after being in arrears one half year be dropped from the list of members.

SEC. 9. The Secretary of the Association shall furnish each member of the Association a Membership Card, declaring him to be a member of the National Education Association for the year for which his dues are paid, and as such entitled to all the rights and privileges granted by the charter and bylaws of the Association. Membership Card

SEC. 10. The right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the Representative Assembly and to hold office in the Association or in any department thereof, shall be limited to active members whose dues are paid. The right to vote and to hold office in the Council shall be limited to members of the Council whose dues are paid. Right to Vote

ARTICLE II—ELECTION OF OFFICERS, REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, AND AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

SECTION 1. The election of officers and transaction of business at the annual business meeting shall be by a Representative Assembly composed of delegates apportioned, elected, and governed as hereinafter provided. Election of Officers

SEC. 2. At the first business meeting of the Representative Assembly on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association nominations for the following offices shall be made: President, Vicepresident, and Treasurer. Candidates for said offices shall be nominated from the floor upon roll call of the states. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association the delegates of each state, territory, and district of the United States shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors and the name of such person shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states. On the fourth day of the annual meeting officers shall be elected from the candidates by the delegates to the Representative Assembly by ballot. Said ballots shall be printed and shall contain the names of all nominees as provided above. Polls for voting shall be open from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M., at such place or places as the President of the Association shall designate. The candidates for President, Treasurer, member of Board of Directors from each state, territory, or district, respectively, and the eleven candidates for the office of Vicepresident receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected. The President of the Association shall appoint tellers and complete all arrangements for carrying out the election. The results of the election herein provided shall be announced at the final business session of the Representative Assembly. The officers thus chosen shall continue in office until the close of the annual meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as herein provided. The Secretary and the Treasurer shall enter upon their duties at a date which shall be determined by the Board of Trustees and which shall not be later than the first of October and shall continue in office during the term for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

SEC. 3. The State Teachers Association or Educational Association of a state, territory, or district, may become affiliated with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated State Association. Each Affiliated State Association shall be a state unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated State Association shall be \$10 for each delegate to which said state shall be entitled, with a maximum of \$100. Said Association shall receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of *Proceedings*, reports of committees, and all special bulletins and announcements when issued. Affiliated State Associations

SEC. 4. A Local Educational Association or Teachers Organization within a state, territory, or district, may affiliate with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated Local Association. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be a local unit in the organization of the National Education Association and as such shall be entitled to representation in the Representative Assembly as hereinafter provided. The annual dues of an Affiliated Local Association shall be \$5, which shall entitle said Association to receive without application, or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association, including the volume of *Proceedings*, reports of committees, and all bulletins and announcements when issued.

SEC. 5. Each Affiliated Association, both state and local, shall be furnished a certificate of membership and shall be entitled to the active assistance and support of the National Education Association in promoting the interest of such Affiliated Association and its members insofar as such interest comes within the purpose and object of the National Education Association as set forth in its charter. The Secretary of the National Education Association shall, with the advice and approval of the Executive Committee, make such arrangements for mutual cooperation between the National Education Association and the State and Local Affiliated Associations as will promote the welfare of all and advance the interests of the teaching profession.

SEC. 6. Each Affiliated State Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association, up to five hundred such active members, and thereafter one delegate and one alternate for each five hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated State Delegates.

SEC. 7. Each Affiliated Local Association shall be entitled to elect one delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated Local Delegates.

SEC. 8. Only active members of the National Education Association shall be eligible to be delegates to the Representative Assembly, and to vote in the election of delegates in a State or Local Affiliated Association. An active member shall be permitted to vote for the election of delegates in but one affiliated Local Association. For determining the apportionment of delegates, an active member may be counted in two Affiliated Associations, and no more; and that one of these shall be the State Association.

SEC. 9. The officers of the National Education Association as named in the charter and the State Superintendent or Commissioner of Education of each state, territory, and district, shall be *ex officio* delegates to the Representative Assembly. The President of the Association shall preside at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and the Secretary of the Association shall keep the records thereof. In case of a tie the President shall cast the deciding vote.

SEC. 10. Delegates shall file their credentials with the Secretary of the Association on blanks furnished by him for that purpose not later than ten days be-

fore the beginning of the annual meeting. The Secretary shall turn over such credentials to the Credential Committee, when appointed, with such information thereon as may be obtained from the records of the Association. The Representative Assembly shall be the final judge of the qualifications of delegates. The delegates shall have equal rights and each shall have one vote. Meetings of the Representative Assembly shall be open to the active members of the Association who shall be privileged to address the Assembly on subjects pertaining to the Association. The Representative Assembly shall adopt rules of procedure which shall not conflict with the charter and bylaws of the Association. It shall recommend an equitable plan for paying the expenses of delegates to the annual business meeting of the Association.

Delegates;
Credentials;
Voting;
Freedom of
Floor

SEC. 11. The officers shall be permitted to hold meetings other than for business purposes and expenses therefor shall be provided.

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and shall perform the duties prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws, and in addition such duties as usually devolve upon the Chief Executive of such an Association. In the absence of the President, the ranking Vicepresident, who is present, shall preside and in the absence of the President and all Vicepresidents a Chairman pro tempore shall be elected under the direction of the Secretary of the Association. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association and shall have power to confer with the President of the Council and the heads of the several Departments and to make such recommendations in regard to the program of the Council and the several Departments as will, in his opinion, promote the interest of the annual meeting. The President shall be a member *ex officio* of the Board of Trustees and Chairman of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee. He shall sign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors and all bills approved or authorized by the Executive Committee acting for and under the instruction of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become first Vicepresident for the ensuing year.

Duties of the
President

SEC. 2. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate record of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors and of the Executive Committee, shall conduct the business of the Association as provided in the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws and, in all matters not definitely prescribed therein, shall be under the direction of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting for the Board of Directors, and, in the absence of instructions from the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President. He shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer. He shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or by the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee. The Secretary shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association, of the Board of Directors, and of the Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members and shall revise said list annually. He shall be Secretary of the Board of Directors. He shall be the custodian of all the property of the Association not in charge of the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees. He shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. He shall submit his annual report to the Executive Committee not later than fifteen days before the annual meeting

Duties of the
Secretary

of the Association, which report shall be transmitted to the Board of Directors at its annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all money, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association. The Secretary shall not print, publish or distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting under the general instruction of the Board of Directors.

Duties of the Treasurer

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall perform the duties prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws. He shall receive from the Secretary and, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, shall hold in safe-keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall pay the same only upon the order of the Board of Trustees, shall notify the President of the Association and the Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed \$500; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures with vouchers for the latter; and said accounts, ending on the thirty-first day of May each year, he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than ten days before the annual meeting of the Association, and when approved by said Committee, these accounts shall be transmitted by this Committee to the Board of Directors at its meeting held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association and a copy of the report shall be transmitted to the Representative Assembly for its information. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties as may be required by the Board of Trustees. At the expiration of his term of office, he shall transfer to his successor all moneys, books, and other property in his possession belonging to the Association.

Duties of the Board of Directors

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall have such powers and perform such duties as are prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and by these Bylaws, shall elect corresponding members as prescribed in Section 6 of Article I of these Bylaws; shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these Bylaws; shall fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred by itself or by the Executive Committee, or the President or the Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors; shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting of the same for the work of all special committees of research and investigation authorized and provided for at the annual business meeting, and for all other needs of the Association; shall make a full report of the financial condition of the Association including the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees to the Representative Assembly at its annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

The Board of Directors shall appoint at its annual meeting a budget committee for the ensuing year, whose duty it shall be to prepare and present a budget to the Board of Directors at its next meeting. The budget committee shall have authority to secure the support of the auditing committee in preparing this budget.

The Board of Directors shall meet in connection with the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly, and may meet in connection with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence and at such other times and places as may be determined by the President or requested in writing by a majority of the elective members of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee may recommend to the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting the appointment of special committees for investigation or research, the subjects for which may have been suggested by the National Council or by the active members of the National Education Association or by any of its Departments; it shall recommend the amount of money to be appropriated for such investigations. When such special committees are provided for and duly authorized by the Representative Assembly and appropriations for them have been authorized by the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee shall, under the instructions of the Board of Directors, have general supervision of them. The Executive Committee shall receive and consider all reports made by the special committees and shall print these reports and present them, together with the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees, and the recommendations of the Executive Committee thereon, to the Board of Directors, which shall transmit the same with recommendations to the Representative Assembly at its annual business meeting. All such special committees shall be appointed by the President of the Association.

Duties of Executive Committee

The Executive Committee shall fill all vacancies occurring in the body of officers of the Association, except as otherwise provided for in the Act of Incorporation or in these Bylaws.

SEC. 6. The Board of Trustees shall have such powers and perform such duties as are prescribed by the Act of Incorporation, shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds in such amounts as may be determined by said Board for the faithful performance of their duties; shall make a full report of the finances of the Association to the Executive Committee not later than ten days prior to the annual meeting of the Association, which report shall be transmitted by the Executive Committee to the Board of Directors at the first regular meeting of the Board held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association. It shall annually choose its own chairman and secretary.

Further Duties of Trustees

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

SECTION 1. The National Council of Education shall discuss educational questions of public and professional interest; propose to the Executive Committee, from time to time, suitable subjects for investigation and research; have a report made at its annual meeting on "Educational Progress during the Past Year"; and in other ways use its best efforts to further the objects of the Association and to promote the cause of education in general.

Function of National Council

SEC. 2. The National Council of Education shall consist of one hundred twenty regular members, selected from the active membership of the National Education Association. Any active member of the Association is eligible to membership in the Council and each member shall be elected for six years and until his successor is elected. In addition to the 120 members thus selected from the active membership the National Council may in its bylaws provide for the admission to membership of representatives from the several departments of the Association on the basis of equal representation from each department.

Membership in Council

SEC. 3. The annual election of members of the Council shall be held at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. The Board of Directors of the Association shall annually elect ten members and the Council ten members, and each body shall fill all vacancies in its quota of members. No state, territory or district in the United States shall have at one time more than seven regular members in the Council.

Election of Committee Members

Time of Meeting

SEC. 4. The annual meeting of the Council shall be held during the week of the annual meeting of the Association.

SEC. 5. The absence of a regular member from two successive annual meetings of the Council shall be considered equivalent to his resignation of membership. Persons whose regular membership in the Council has expired shall be designated honorary members of the Council during the time of their active membership in the Association with the privilege of attending the regular sessions of the Council and participating in its discussions. A member who discontinues or forfeits his active membership in the Association forfeits his membership in the Council.

Loss of Membership

SEC. 6. The officers of the Council shall consist of a President, a Vicepresident, a Secretary, and such standing committees as may be prescribed by its bylaws, all of whom shall be regular members of the Council. The Secretary of the Council shall, in addition to performing the duties pertaining to his office, furnish the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the Council for publication.

Council Officers

SEC. 7. The National Council of Education is hereby authorized to adopt bylaws for its government not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or the bylaws of the Association; provided, That such bylaws be submitted to, and approved by, the Board of Directors of the Association before they shall become operative.

Bylaws and Powers of Council

SEC. 8. The powers and duties of the Council may be changed or the Council abolished upon a two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly taken at the annual meeting of the Association; provided, That notice of the proposed action has been given at the preceding annual business meeting of the Association.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following Departments are now (1932) in existence, to wit: The Departments, first, of Superintendence; second, of Vocational Education; third, of Kindergarten-Primary Education; fourth, of Secondary Education; fifth, of Business Education; sixth, of School Health and Physical Education; seventh, of Science Instruction; eighth, of Rural Education; ninth, of Classroom Teachers; tenth, of Deans of Women; eleventh, of Adult Education; twelfth, of Elementary School Principals; thirteenth, of Visual Instruction; fourteenth, of Social Studies; fifteenth, of Teachers Colleges; sixteenth, of Lip Reading; seventeenth, of Secondary School Principals; eighteenth, of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; nineteenth, of Educational Research; twentieth, of Special Education, twenty-first, of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics; twenty-second, of Administrative Women in Education. There is also the National Council of Education.

SEC. 2. Each Department shall have the right to fix the qualifications of its members for the purpose of electing officers and transacting the other business of the Department; provided, Active members of the Association, and no others, shall be eligible to such Department membership, and provided also that all active members of the Association shall be permitted to attend the professional programs and discussions of any Department.

Members of Departments

SEC. 3. Each Department shall hold an annual meeting at the time and place of the meeting of the Association except as otherwise provided in these bylaws or as directed by the Board of Directors, or by the Executive Committee acting under the general instructions of the Board of Directors.

Department Meetings

SEC. 4. The object of the meetings of the Departments shall be the discussion of questions pertaining to their respective fields of educational work. The programs of these meetings shall be prepared by the respective presidents in conference with, and under the general direction of, the President of the Association. Each Department shall be limited to two sessions, with formal programs, unless otherwise ordered by the President of the Association, except that a third session of business or informal round-table conference may be held at the discretion of the Department officers.

Object of
Department
Meetings

SEC. 5. The officers of each Department shall consist of a President, a Vice-president, a Secretary, and such other officers as may be deemed necessary by the Department, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the Department to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected; and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Association. Each Department shall provide for the creation of an Executive Committee, and assign to it any duties consistent with the purposes of the Department and the Act of Incorporation and Bylaws of the Association. In case there is a vacancy in the office of President of any Department, it shall be filled by appointment made by the Executive Committee of the Department. Any other Departmental vacancy shall be filled by appointment made by the President of the Department.

Officers of
Departments

SEC. 6. The Secretary of each Department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, furnish to the Secretary of the Association a copy of the proceedings of the meetings of the Department for publication. No Department shall establish an office outside of the general headquarters of the Association without the consent of the Board of Directors.

Department
Headquarters

SEC. 7. All Departments shall have equal rights and privileges, with the exception stated in Section 3 of this article. They shall be named in Section 1 of this article in the order of their establishment and shall be dropped from the list when discontinued. Each Department may be governed by its own regulations in so far as they are not inconsistent with the act of incorporation or these bylaws.

Rights of
Departments

SEC. 8. Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors a new department may be established by vote of two-thirds of the delegates to the Representative Assembly present at any annual meeting; provided, that a written application for said Department with title and purpose of the same shall have been made at the regular meeting of the Assembly next preceding the one at which action is taken by at least 250 members engaged or interested in the field in the interest of which the Department is proposed to be established; *provided*, that no group shall be admitted to Departmental status until it shall have held constructive meetings for at least three successive years.

How
Established

A Department already established may be discontinued upon a two-thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any business meeting provided that announcement of the purpose to discontinue has been made at the preceding annual business meeting. The Board of Directors may recommend to the Representative Assembly the discontinuance of any Department. Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors a Department which has failed to hold a regular meeting for two successive years may be discontinued by a vote of two-thirds of the delegates to the Representative Assembly present at any annual meeting.

SEC. 9. Any Department, by a two-thirds vote of those voting at any regular business meeting, may levy a membership fee to supplement its allowance from the Association. Such membership fees shall be paid to the Secretary of the Department who shall transmit them monthly to the Secretary of the Association. Such funds shall be added to the Department's allowance from the Association and shall be used for the work of said Department only, and shall be disbursed upon the recommendation of the executive officers of the Department in the same manner as other funds of the Association are disbursed.

Fees for
Department
Members

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. Not later than five months before the end of the fiscal year, the President shall appoint an Auditing Committee, consisting of three active members of the Association, no one of whom shall be either a Trustee or a Director; to this Committee shall be referred the report and audit of the expert accountant or accountants, together with the communication of the President transmitting the same as provided in Section 5 of this Article; and the Committee shall report its findings to the Board of Directors.

Auditing
Committee

SEC. 2. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and place as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association, the accredited delegates to the Representative Assembly from each state shall elect one member and one alternate who are active members of the Association for each of the following committees, to serve for the ensuing year: Credentials, Resolutions, and Necrology. The Committee on Credentials shall receive the official list of delegates from the Secretary and report thereon to the Representative Assembly.

Delegates Meet
by States

SEC. 3. The Committee on Resolutions shall report at the annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly, and except by unanimous consent, all resolutions shall be referred to said committee without discussion. This committee shall receive and consider all resolutions proposed by active members, or referred to it by the President; some time during the second day of the annual meeting of the Association the committee shall hold a meeting, at a place and time to be announced in the printed program, for the purpose of receiving proposed resolutions and hearing those who may wish to advocate them.

Resolutions

SEC. 4. The Committee on Necrology may prepare for the published *Proceedings* brief memorial tributes to members who have died during the year.

Necrology

SEC. 5. Within thirty (30) days prior to the time of the annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a competent person, firm or corporation, licensed to do business as expert accountants; the accountant or accountants so appointed shall examine the accounts, papers, and vouchers of the Secretary, the Treasurer, and the Board of Trustees and compare the same, shall also examine the securities of the permanent fund held by the Board of Trustees. The report of said accountant or accountants shall be filed with the President not less than ten days before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association, and shall be by him submitted to the Auditing Committee with such comments as he may think proper.

Examination
Of Accounts

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION 1. Stated meeting of the Association, of the National Council of Education, and of all Departments, except as otherwise provided, shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or by the Executive Committee acting under the instructions of the Board of Directors.

**Meetings to be
Held
Annually**

SEC. 2. The annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly shall begin at 9 o'clock a. m., on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association. The time and place of such meeting shall be designated in the program. The Secretary shall notify the members of the Board of Directors of the time and place of meeting, not less than thirty (30) days before the meeting.

**Meetings of
Assembly,
Directors, and
Trustees**

The first regular meeting of the new Board of Directors shall be held as soon as practicable and within twenty-four hours after the close of the last session of the annual meeting. The place and time of this meeting shall be announced in the printed program.

The Board of Trustees shall hold its annual meeting at some convenient time and immediately following the meeting of the new Board of Directors. Special meetings of the Trustees may be called by the Chairman and shall be called on request of a majority of the Board of Trustees. Due notice of all meetings of the Board of Trustees shall be given to every member of the Board by the Secretary thereof.

ARTICLE VIII—PROCEEDINGS

SECTION 1. The proceedings of the Association, of the Council, of the Departments, and of all commissions and committees, shall be published at the discretion of and under the direction of the Executive Committee provided that such publication has been approved and the money therefor appropriated by the Board of Directors.

**Publication of
Proceedings**

SEC. 2. No paper, lecture or address shall be read before the Association or any of the Departments in the absence of the author, without the approval of the President of the Association, or of the President of the Department interested; nor shall any such paper, lecture or address be published in the Proceedings without the approval of the Executive Committee.

**Absence of
Author**

ARTICLE IX—QUORUM

SECTION 1. Elected directors from twenty-five states shall constitute a quorum of the Board of Directors. A majority of all the accredited delegates, representatives of not less than twenty-five states, shall constitute a quorum of the Representative Assembly.

**Formation of
Quorum**

ARTICLE X—AMENDMENTS

SECTION 1. These bylaws may be altered or amended at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly by unanimous vote, or by a two-thirds vote of the Representative Assembly if the alteration or amendment shall have been proposed in writing at the annual business meeting next preceding the one at which action is taken, and due announcement of the proposed action shall have been made in the official publication of the Association.

**Amendments
to Bylaws**

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE
UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

of Acceptance of Charter and Adoption of Bylaws under the Act of Congress approved June 30, 1906.

We, the undersigned, Nathan C. Schaeffer, the presiding officer, and Irwin Shepard, the Secretary of the meeting of the National Educational Association held at Los Angeles, California, on the 10th day of July, 1907, said meeting being the annual meeting of the Association held next after the passage of an act of Congress entitled "An Act To Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States,"

Do hereby certify, that at said meeting held pursuant to due notice, a quorum being present, the said Association adopted resolutions of which true copies are hereto attached, and accepted the charter of the National Education Association of the United States, granted by said act of Congress, and adopted bylaws as provided in said act and selected officers; and the undersigned pursuant to said resolutions,

Do hereby certify that the National Education Association of the United States has duly accepted said charter granted by said act of Congress, and adopted bylaws, and is the lawful successor to the National Educational Association.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto signed our names this 20th day of August, 1907.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, *Presiding Officer*
IRWIN SHEPARD, *Secretary*

VERIFICATION

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE ACTIVE MEMBERS, JULY 10, 1907

1. *Resolved*, That the National Educational Association hereby accepts the charter granted by an act of Congress entitled "An Act To Incorporate the National Education Association of the United States," passed June 30, 1906, and that the President and Secretary of this meeting be authorized and directed to execute and file with the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia a verified certificate showing the acceptance by the Association of the charter granted by said act.

2. *Resolved*, That the proposed bylaws of which notice was given at the annual meeting of the Association held on July 6, 1905, which are printed in full in the Journal of said meeting, be and the same are hereby adopted to take effect immediately.

3. *Resolved*, That the Association adopt as its corporate seal a circle containing the title "National Education Association of the United States," and the dates "1857-1907."

4. *Resolved*, That the Association do now proceed to elect officers, and to organize under the charter granted by the act of Congress.

Filed in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia, September 4, 1907.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1857-1870

- 1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized)
JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
- 1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO
Z. RICHARDS, President.
J. W. BUCKLEY, Secretary.
A. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer.
- 1859—WASHINGTON, D. C.
A. J. RICKOFF, President.
J. W. BUCKLEY, Secretary.
C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer.
- 1860—BUFFALO, N. Y.
J. W. BUCKLEY, President.
Z. RICHARDS, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
- 1861, 1862—No session.
- 1863—CHICAGO, ILL.
JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President.
JAMES CRUICKSHANK, Secretary.
O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer.
- 1864—OGDENSBURG, N. Y.
W. H. WELLS, President.
DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1865—HARRISBURG, PA.
S. S. GREENE, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer.
- 1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
S. P. BATES, Treasurer.
- 1867—No session.
- 1868—NASHVILLE, TENN.
J. M. GREGORY, President.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary.
JAMES CRUICKSHANK, Treasurer.
- 1869—TRENTON, N. J.
L. VAN BOKKELEN, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
A. L. BARBER, Treasurer.
- 1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO
DANIEL B. HAGAR, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1871-1907

- 1871—ST. LOUIS, MO.
J. L. PICKARD, President.
W. E. CROSBY, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1872—BOSTON, MASS.
E. E. WHITE, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1873—ELMIRA, N. Y.
B. G. NORTHRUP, President.
S. H. WHITE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1874—DETROIT, MICH.
S. H. WHITE, President.
A. P. MARBLE, Secretary.
JOHN HANCOCK, Treasurer.
- 1875—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.
W. T. HARRIS, President.
M. R. ABBOTT, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1876—BALTIMORE, MD.
W. F. PHELPS, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
A. P. MARBLE, Treasurer.
- 1877—LOUISVILLE, KY.
M. A. NEWALL, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1878—No session.
- 1879—PHILADELPHIA, PA.
JOHN HANCOCK, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.
- 1880—CHAUTAQUA, N. Y.
J. ORMOND WILSON, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1881—ATLANTA, GA.
JAMES H. SMART, President.
W. D. HENKLE, Secretary.
E. T. TAPPAN, Treasurer.
- 1882—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
G. J. ORR, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
H. S. TARBELL, Treasurer.
- 1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1884—MADISON, WIS.
THOMAS W. BICKNELL, President.
H. S. TARBELL, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1885—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1886—TOPEKA, KANS.
N. A. CALKINS, President.
W. E. SHELDON, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. SHELDON, President.
L. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1888—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.
AARON GOVE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1889—NASHVILLE, TENN.
ALBERT P. MARBLE, President.
J. H. CANFIELD, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1890—ST. PAUL, MINN.
J. H. CANFIELD, President.
W. R. GARRETT, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1891—TORONTO, ONT.
W. R. GARRETT, President.
E. H. COOK, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1892—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. H. COOK, President.
R. W. STEVENSON, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1893—CHICAGO, ILL.
(International Congress of Education.)
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.
- 1894—ASBURY PARK, N. J.
ALBERT G. LANE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. M. GREENWOOD, Treasurer.

1895—DENVER, COLO.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, Pres.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.

1896—BUFFALO, N. Y.

NEWTON C. DOUGHERTY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.

1897—MILWAUKEE, WIS.

CHARLES R. SKINNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.

1898—WASHINGTON, D. C.

J. M. GREENWOOD, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.

1899—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

E. ORAM LYTE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
I. C. McNEILL, Treasurer.

1900—CHARLESTON, S. C.

OSCAR T. CORSON, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CARROLL G. PEARSE, Treasurer.

1901—DETROIT, MICH.

JAMES M. GREEN, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
L. C. GREENLEE, Treasurer.

1902—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

WILLIAM M. BEARDSHEAR, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
CHARLES H. KEYES, Treasurer.

1903—BOSTON, MASS.

CHARLES W. ELIOT, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
W. M. DAVIDSON, Treasurer.

1904—ST. LOUIS, MO.

JOHN W. COOK, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
MCHENRY RHODES, Treasurer.

1905—ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE, N. J.

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
JAMES W. CRABTREE, Treasurer.

1906—No session.

1907—LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
J. N. WILKINSON, Treasurer.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1908—

1908—CLEVELAND, OHIO

EDWIN G. COOLEY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treas.

1909—DENVER, COLO.

LORENZO D. HARVEY, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treas.

1910—BOSTON, MASS.

JAMES Y. JOYNER, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, Treas.

1911—SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Treasurer.

1912—CHICAGO, ILL.

CARROLL C. PEARSE, President.
IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary.
KATHERINE D. BLAKE, Treasurer.

1913—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.

EDWARD T. FAIRCHILD, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1914—ST. PAUL, MINN.

JOSEPH SWAIN, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1915—OAKLAND, CALIF.

DAVID STARR JORDAN, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1916—NEW YORK, N. Y.

DAVID B. JOHNSON, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
GRACE M. SHEPHERD, Treasurer.

1917—PORTLAND, ORE.

ROBERT J. ALEY, President.
DURAND W. SPRINGER, Secretary.
THOMAS E. FINEGAN, Treasurer.

1918—PITTSBURGH, PA.

MARY C. C. BRADFORD, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
A. J. MATTHEWS, Treasurer.

1919—MILWAUKEE, WIS.

GEORGE D. STRAYER, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
A. J. MATTHEWS, Treasurer.

1920—SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.

JOSEPHINE CORLISS PRESTON, Pres.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
A. J. MATTHEWS, Treasurer.

1921—DES MOINES, IOWA.

FRED M. HUNTER, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1922—BOSTON, MASS.

CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS, Pres.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1923—OAKLAND-SAN FRANCISCO.

WILLIAM B. OWEN, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1924—WASHINGTON, D. C.

OLIVE M. JONES, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1925—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

JESSE H. NEWLON, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1926—PHILADELPHIA, PA.

MARY MCSKIMMON, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
HENRY LESTER SMITH, Treasurer.

1927—SEATTLE, WASH.

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
HENRY LESTER SMITH, Treasurer.

1928—MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

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- Lloyd, W. H., Editor, *Ohio Farmer*, 1011-15 Rockwell Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Lynd, Louise B., State Normal School, Tempe, Ariz.
- MacDonald, Rose M., Berryville, Va.
- McArthur, Gertrude, Gholson, Miss.
- McGuire, A. E., Head, Department of Education, Concord State Normal School, Athens, W. Va.
- Miller, Mrs. Inez, Head, Department of Rural Education, Oregon Normal School, Monmouth, Ore.
- Mills, D. C., Executive Secretary, Department of Young Citizens League, State Department of Education, Pierre, S. D.
- Milnor, Roma L., Superintendent, Noble County Schools, Albion, Ind.
- Mims, Mary, Extension Sociologist, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La.
- Mineer, F. Edgar, Superintendent, Overton Public Schools, Overton, Nev.
- Morris, George M., 768 Sheridan Avenue, Bexley, Ohio.
- Murray, Elizabeth C., Superintendent, Columbia County Schools, St. Helens, Ore.
- Neale, O. W., Director, Rural Education, Central State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wis.
- Newell, Madlyn, 308 West First Street, Oklahoma City, Okla.
- Nichols, Augusta M., Headmaster, Hampstead High School, Hampstead, N. H.
- Offerman, Kate M., Assistant Superintendent, Wood County Schools, Bowling Green, Ohio.
- Ott, Mrs. Hazel H., State Department of Education, Director, Department of Curriculum Revision, Pierre, S. D.
- Palmer, Mrs. Bertha R., Scientific Temperance Federation, 400 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.
- Pearson, Anna C., Rural School Supervisor, State Normal School, Albion, Idaho.
- Peterson, Fred, Superintendent, Klamath County Schools, Klamath Falls, Ore.
- Phillips, Homer T., Chairman, Department of Education, Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Mo.
- Pickett, John E., Editor, *Pacific Rural Press and California Farmer*, 560 Howard Street, San Francisco, Calif.
- Pippin, H. O., Superintendent, Stark County Schools, Dickinson, N. D.
- Pittenger, L. A., President, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.
- Powers, Sue M., Superintendent, Shelby County Schools, Memphis, Tenn.
- Preston, Mrs. Josephine Corliss, Vashon Island, King County, Burton, Wash.
- Prior, Charles F., Superintendent, Public Schools, Fairhaven, Mass.
- Rarick, C. E., Director, Extension Service, Fort Hays State Teachers College, Hays, Kans.
- Richardson, Mrs. Ellsworth, Farm Bureau Leader, Givin, Iowa.
- Robinson, William McKinley, Director, Department of Rural Education, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.
- Samuelson, Agnes, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa.
- Schraeder, E. H., Superintendent, Public Schools, Grand Forks, N. D.
- Secor, Alson, Editorial Department, *Successful Farming*, Des Moines, Iowa.
- Seidell, Ida E., Rural Supervisor, Pitt County, Greenville, N. C.
- Selke, George A., President, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.
- Sewell, Mrs. Charles W., Director, Home and Community Work, American Farm Bureau Federation, 58 East Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.
- Showalter, N. D., State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Wash.
- Shriber, J. H., Associate Professor of Education, School of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.
- Simmons, Edna, Elementary Supervisor, Hinds County, Jackson, Miss.
- Simpson, T. Arthur, State Supervisor of Rural Education, Springfield, Ill.
- Sloane, Mrs. Irene, Superintendent, Logan County Schools, Guthrie, Okla.
- Smith, I. S., State Supervisor of Schools, State Department of Education, Atlanta, Ga.
- Smith, William M., Superintendent, Monmouth County Schools, Freehold, N. J.
- Snyder, Ray P., Chief, Rural Education Bureau, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.
- Soule, Andrew M., President, State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.
- Strickland, Etta, Superintendent, Nacogdoches County Schools, Nacogdoches, Texas.
- Sutton, W. J., Chairman, Education Committee of the State Legislature, State Senate, Cheney, Wash.
- Swain, C. C., President, State Teachers College, Mayville, N. D.
- Swenson, Anna, Director of Rural Education, State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minn.
- Thompson, John, Editor, *Wallace's Farmer*, Wallace Publishing Company, Des Moines, Iowa.
- Turner, Harvey L., Director, Division of Rural Education, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
- Vogltance, F. J., Superintendent, Colfax County Schools, Schuyler, Nebr.

Walker, Florence H., Rural Supervisor, State Department of Education, Topeka, Kans.
 Wallace, D. A., Webb Publishing Company, Editor, *Farmer's Wife*, 55 East Tenth Street, St. Paul, Minn.
 Ward, W. H., Superintendent, Public Schools, Walterboro, S. C.
 White, Raymond, Superintendent, Public Schools, Douglas, Wyo.

Wilcox, Carlyle W., Principal, Public Schools, District Number One, Pioche, Nev.
 Wilson, S. C., Director, Division of Teacher Training in Vocational Education, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Texas.
 Yates, W. S., Supervisor of Rural Schools, Board of Education, Hillsborough County, Plant City, Fla.

COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL ECONOMIC OBJECTIVES

(A Special Committee)

Kelly, F. J., Chairman; Chief, Division of Colleges and Professional Schools, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.
 Dewey, John, Associate Chairman; Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
 Givens, Willard E., Superintendent, Public Schools, Oakland, Calif.

Marshall, Leon C., Institute of Law, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
 Moore, Robert C., Secretary, Illinois State Teachers Association, Carlinville, Ill.
 Ross, E. A., University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

COMMITTEE ON PROBLEM OF TENURE

(Authorized by Representative Assembly)

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Tall, Lida Lee, Chairman; Principal, Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.
 Adair, Cornelia S., 2121 Park Avenue, Richmond, Va.
 Evenden, E. S., Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Applegate, Mrs. Stella S., 304 Stacy Trent Hotel, Trenton, N. J.
 Bailey, Francis L., Commissioner of Education, Montpelier, Vt.
 Boggess, Estelle, 1615 Grant Street, Denver, Colo.
 Bowden, A. O., President, New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City, N. M.
 Brennan, Katherine, 182 Lloyd Street, New Haven, Conn.
 Cameron, E. T., Executive Secretary, Michigan Education Association, 935 North Washington Avenue, Lansing, Mich.
 Carmichael, H. F., Principal, Roosevelt Junior High School, Decatur, Ill.
 Carr, A. T., Principal, Wilson Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Carter, Mrs. Susanne Homes, Superintendent, Jackson County Schools, Medford, Ore.
 Cody, Frank, Superintendent, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.
 Dahl, Mrs. Myrtle Hooper, 3527 Pillsbury Avenue, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Dann, George J., Superintendent, Oneonta Public Schools, Oneonta, N. Y.
 Davison, George M., Principal, Abraham Lincoln Junior High School, 530 Ridgewood Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 DeCamp, John A., Superintendent, Public Schools, Utica, N. Y.
 Dickinson, Florence M., 249 Windsor Avenue, Haddonfield, N. J.

Dolton, Isabella, Assistant Superintendent, Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Drake, Flora E., 2230 Brookside Avenue, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Dwan, Stephen, Broadway High School, Seattle, Wash.
 Early, John J., Superintendent, Public Schools, Sheridan, Wyo.
 Evans, C. Ray, Principal, North Summit High School, Coalville, Utah.
 Everett, Ralph W., Sacramento Junior College, Sacramento, Calif.
 Gates, C. Ray, Superintendent, Public Schools, Grand Island, Nebr.
 Gilligan, James R., Superintendent, Dunmore Public Schools, Dunmore, Pa.
 Hale, Mrs. Gertrude, High School, Athol, Mass.
 Hinman, Harriett L., Research Department, Board of Education, Toledo, Ohio.
 Holley, Ella J., Rural Supervisor for New Castle County Schools, Wilmington, Del.
 Jacobs, Clara M., Centennial High School, Pueblo, Colo.
 Kemp, W. W., Dean, School of Education, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.
 Kittel, Charles A., Superintendent, Public Schools, West Waterloo, Iowa.
 Lain, Nell E., 4518 Montgall Street, Kansas City, Mo.
 Longanecker, F. M., Superintendent, Public Schools, Racine, Wis.
 Lord, Mary A., North Junior High School, Sioux City, Iowa.
 McConnell, John Preston, President, State Teachers College, East Radford, Va.
 Neave, (Miss) E. Moore, Park Street School, Hood River, Ore.
 Nissen, S. B., Editor, *South Dakota Education Association Journal*, Perry Building, Sioux Falls, S. D.
 Norton, Mrs. Alice R., Principal, San Miguel School, San Francisco, Calif.
 O'Connor, Mary Elizabeth, Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Natick, Mass.

Pitts, Gertrude, 915 Cumberland Street,
Little Rock, Ark.
Roe, Warren A., Principal, Alexander Street
School, Newark, N. J.
Samuelson, Agnes, State Superintendent of
Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa.
Shawkey, M. P., President, Marshall Col-
lege, Huntington, W. Va.
Sheehan, Mary A., Assistant Principal,
Washington Junior High School, 725 Clif-
ford Avenue, Rochester, N. Y.
Shepherd, Grace M., 803 North Mulberry
Street, Maryville, Mo.
Small, Irving W., Superintendent, Public
Schools, Bangor, Maine.
Smith, C. O., 312 North Hersey Street,
Beloit, Kans.
Staley, A. H., Superintendent, Public
Schools, Hastings, Nebr.

Stevenson, Fred G., 737 Seventh Street, La
Salle, Ill.
Stiles, Chester D., Superintendent, Public
Schools Westfield, Mass.
Stuart, Milo H., 4535 Park Ave., Indian-
apolis, Ind.
Thalman, Joseph L., Principal, Anderson
Senior High School, Anderson, Ind.
Thompson, Oliver Scott, Superintendent,
Compton Union District Secondary
Schools, Compton, Calif.
Tigert, John J., President, University of
Florida, Gainesville, Fla.
Wilson, Josephine, President, Dallas Grade
Teachers Council, 1220 Kirby Building,
Dallas, Texas.
Wolaver, Florence E., 1734 Orrington Ave-
nue, Evanston, Ill.

MINUTES OF THE THIRTEENTH REPRESENTATIVE
ASSEMBLY

Chicago, Illinois, July 1-7, 1933

First Business Session, Tuesday Morning, July 4, 1933

The first business session of the Representative Assembly, scheduled to convene at 9 a.m. in the Grand Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel, was opened by a musical program, rendered by the Harrison Technical High School Orchestra, under the direction of *Joseph Gaill*. At 9:30 a.m. the meeting was formally convened by the president.

President Rosier: The Representative Assembly of the Seventy-first Annual Session of the National Education Association will be in order. The invocation this morning will be given by the *Rev. Herbert L. Willett* of Kenilworth Union Church, Chicago, Illinois. (The invocation was one of the kind that inspires, giving courage and hope.)

Mr. H. B. Norton (Alabama): Mr. President, permit the Committee on Credentials to report as follows:

The Committee met, organized and performed its duties in compliance with the rules and regulations and bylaws of this Association. The meeting was held July 3, 1933, at 2 p.m., in private dining room No. 9, Stevens Hotel. A chairman and a secretary were elected. Thirty-four states responded to roll call. The report of the secretary was that 1221 delegates were already registered.

It was the unanimous vote of the committee that all delegates duly registered by Miss Chase in the secretary's office up to the time of the meeting of this Committee be seated, and that all who are duly registered thereafter and whose credentials meet the requirements of the bylaws of this Association, be admitted as delegates to this assembly.

It was unanimously voted that the New York, N. Y., branch of the National Council of Administrative Women be permitted representation this year. It was moved and seconded that after this year, the Committee deny representation to branches of departments affiliated with the National Education Association, and which pay dues to the Departments. The motion carried.

It was unanimously voted that the chairman appoint a subcommittee, consisting of five members, the five to include the chairman and secretary, to act for the Committee in cases of emergency. The additional three were *Mr. Carter* of Missouri, *Miss Sanborn* of Vermont, and *Miss Rathfon* of Indiana.

The meeting then adjourned.

(Signed) H. B. NORTON, *Chairman*

(Signed) ANTHONY E. KARNES, *Secretary*

Mr. Chairman, there is one paragraph of this report on which the committee recognizes it cannot bind the Association. The Committee desires to recommend that this be referred to the Executive Committee. May I read that paragraph again? "It was moved and seconded that after this year the committee deny representation to branches of Departments affiliated with the National Education Association and which pay dues to the Departments. The motion was carried."

I move that this paragraph be referred to the Executive Committee, and that the remainder of the report be adopted.

(Motion seconded and unanimously adopted.)

President Rosier: The motion is carried and all those occupying seats under the regulations announced by the committee will have a part in this Representative Assembly.

The next is the adoption of an order of business.

Secretary Crabtree: Mr. Chairman, it has been the practise to adopt the program prepared by the president as the order of business. I so move.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders: Second the motion.

(There being no discussion, the motion was put and carried, and the regular order of business was declared to be the program as prepared by *President Rosier*.)

President Rosier: The next item on the program is the minutes of the preceding meeting. What is your pleasure?

Secretary Crabtree: These minutes have been printed in the volume of *Proceedings* and the most of them have been printed in the *Manual*. It has been the custom to adopt the minutes as printed in the volume of *Proceedings*. I now move to that effect.

Mr. George Wannamaker (Georgia): Second the motion.

(There being no discussion, the motion was put and carried, and the minutes declared adopted as printed.)

President Rosier: Now it has become the custom in recent years in connection with the business of this Representative Assembly to have an occasional address, so that the members of the Representative Assembly may not have all their time taken up with purely business proceedings, and I think today that we have provided you with two very fine speakers. I have very great pleasure at this time in presenting as the first speaker before this Representative Assembly a former president of the Association, the state superintendent of public instruction of the state of Illinois, *Francis G. Blair*, who will speak to us on the topic, "Teachers on Guard." (The address is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: The members of the Representative Assembly will be interested to know that the general session which is being held parallel to this in the Eighth Street Theater has a capacity audience at this hour.

We have now an item of business, the Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association. The chairman of this committee is *Dr. Thomas D. Wood*, Teachers College, Columbia University. *Dr. Wood* is well and favorably known to many of you. It is a matter of great regret to us today that *Dr. Wood* cannot be present. We are pleased, however, that the report of the Committee will be presented by *Dr. Rogers*, a member of the Committee.

Mr. James E. Rogers (New York): It is a pleasure to make this report for *Dr. Wood*. As you know, we have a Joint Committee with a number of great organizations, such as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Medical Association, the American Library Association. This Joint Committee is very old, probably the first and oldest, dating from 1911. *Dr. Wood* has here presented a rather lengthy report, but for brevity I shall simply give parts of it and make an outline or digest for you. This is a report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association. (He reviewed the report. It will be found elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: May I take just a minute to express the appreciation of the National Education Association of *Dr. Thomas D. Wood* and his Committee. I think of no greater contribution that has been made to education in the last twelve or fifteen years than that which has been made by *Dr. Wood* and it is most gratifying that his contribution should have been made thru and under the name of the National Education Association. I am sure that we all appreciate the very fine contributions of this Committee under the leadership of *Dr. Wood* to the health and welfare of the children of our nation.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders: Mr. Chairman, I move the report be received with thanks, and incorporated in the record.

(Motion seconded, put, and unanimously carried.)

President Rosier: Among the organizations with which the National Education Association is affiliated, there is none more helpful or more important than that of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. It has been my pleasure to have

had some conference during the year with *Mrs. Hugh Bradford*, the president of that great organization. It is a matter of regret to her, as well as to me and this Representative Assembly, that *Mrs. Bradford* does not find it possible to be in attendance at this convention. However, she will be represented in presenting the report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers by *Mrs. Charles Rowe*. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: I am sure the school people of the country appreciate the cooperation and loyalty of the members of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. In many states of the Union this organization has been the strong right arm of our educational organizations, and in behalf of the National Education Association I want to express our deep appreciation of the cooperation of *Mrs. Bradford* and her staff in the headquarters in Washington and of all organizations affiliated with this national organization. Let us have a motion to receive and adopt this report.

Mr. George Wannamaker (Georgia): I so move you.

(The motion being seconded, was put and unanimously carried.)

President Rosier: Now we are to have the pleasure at this time of hearing a voice—a school voice—which I suppose more people have heard in the last two years than any other school voice. Not only school teachers but people of all classes and conditions have heard this voice.

There has been a good bit of talk about whether the National Education Association is meeting its obligations and whether it is rendering the service it ought to or not. I want to say to you that in the last two years, thru the National Education Association, we have talked education to millions of people. We have gone in a simple, practical way over the radio to the people of the United States and we have talked to them as they sat in their homes, and about their firesides, and I do not believe that any more important service has ever been given to the whole cause of education than has been given thru our radio programs in the last two years. And today, at this hour, we are to have an address from that person whose voice has been heard by these millions of people. I am glad to have her in her characteristic way, with her enthusiasm and her characteristic energy, talk to you about "How the National Education Association Helps the Individual Teacher of the United States." I have great pleasure in presenting the one and only *Florence Hale*. (The address is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: Now we have just about the right time for the very interesting feature of this first session of the Representative Assembly, and by way of introduction to this interesting situation, we will have the announcement of the arrangements made by the Committee on Elections.

Mr. John W. Thalman (Illinois): Under the bylaws of the National Education Association the election of officers must be held on the fourth day of the sessions, which will be Thursday, July 6. The polls open at 8 o'clock in the morning and close at 6 o'clock at night.

Now this isn't going to be a common garden variety election. It is going to be an honest-to-goodness, old-fashioned type with the characteristic rivalry. We hope that no bitterness will creep in. Every delegate is eligible to vote. When you received your delegate's credentials you received a ticket with a coupon. On Thursday will you take that coupon, sign it, and present it at the voting place and receive your ballot?

The voting place will be at the secretary's desk in the exhibit hall where you received your delegate credentials.

The ballots will be printed. Will you place your cross for your candidate at the right of the name and be very careful that you do not invalidate your ballot because of the keenness of this election.

The members of the committee, who are as follows: *Superintendent Charles Rice* of Portland, Oregon; the secretary of the State Association of West Virginia, *J. H. Hickman*; *Edith Joyner* of Norfolk, Virginia, an elementary-school principal; *Effie*

MacGregor of Minneapolis, also an elementary-school principal—this committee will meet tomorrow morning at 8:45 a.m. at the secretary's office to complete arrangements.

I believe that is all that is necessary except your determination to be there early and vote. Don't forget there is a wonderful ball game on that afternoon, so get your voting in early.

President Rosier: Now we will have ample time for the presentation of candidates and the distribution of the ballots before we go. While I am sure the Representative Assembly does not care to listen to me long, especially in this respect, but I believe you all agree with me that you will enjoy a reasonable length of time—I suggest about five minutes—for the nominating speeches, and two minutes for the seconding speeches.

First in order will be the presentation of candidates for president. May I just now ask all those who expect to make nominating speeches or to make seconding speeches to come toward the front so that you may be here to make your presentation. I will wait just a few moments until those who wish to present candidates have come forward. Maybe you are already here. I will ask those who are to present candidates, either nominating speeches or seconding speeches, to come and stand before the microphone so that all may be heard. I am sure you are interested in this matter.

Secretary Crabtree will call the roll of the states for the presentation of candidates for president. (On calling "Alabama" this state yielded to Pennsylvania.)

Dr. Frank B. Haas (Pennsylvania): I voice the unanimous appreciation of the Pennsylvania delegation for the gracious courtesy extended to us by our friends from the delegation from Alabama.

Pennsylvania yields to none in its zeal and support of professional education associations. Seventy-six years ago, in 1857, the National Education Association had its beginning in Philadelphia. Eight years later, in 1865, the Department of Superintendence was organized in Harrisburg. Thruout these years Philadelphia and Pennsylvania have contributed much to the growth, the leadership, and the support of this great National Education Association.

For the past two years Pennsylvania has had more active members in the National Education Association than any other state. Philadelphia, in point of numbers, ranks above every other city in N. E. A. membership. Strange as it may seem, however, at no time during the long history of the National Education Association has a Philadelphian been honored by the presidency. Pennsylvania now brings to you a Philadelphian as its nominee for the presidency of this great organization. This classroom teacher is not presented because she is a resident of Philadelphia. She is being presented because of her association work in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania. She has proved to us that in her are the essential qualities of leadership needed for the effective work of this great national association during this emergency. I shall speak but briefly of her outstanding services which prompt us to present *Jessie Gray* as your candidate.

In the first place, she is a classroom teacher. Thruout her professional career she has ever been associated with children and classroom problems. Her knowledge of teaching procedures and her ability to deal with children have been recognized by the fact that she now teaches a training class of fifth-grade boys and girls in the Thaddeus Stevens Training School in Philadelphia. It is in this training school in Philadelphia that those preparing to teach, observe, and practise and I submit to you that no higher honor can come to any classroom teacher than to serve as a guide in teaching methods for those who come after.

In the second place, she embraces unusual qualities of leadership. A brief enumeration of her services in Philadelphia, in Pennsylvania, and in the nation are abundant proof of this statement. For four years she was honored with the presidency of the Philadelphia Normal School Alumni Association; for three years she was the president of the Philadelphia Teachers Association with a membership of approximately 8000; she is chairman of the Louise Haeseler Memorial Fund, a fraternal fund to

help disabled teachers, which was established during her presidency of the Philadelphia Teachers Association; she was president of the Pennsylvania State Education Association in 1925, the only woman in Pennsylvania ever elected to that position; for ten years she has been a member of the Legislative Committee of the Pennsylvania State Education Association; for four years she has been vicepresident of the Women's Legislative Council of Pennsylvania, representing more than 200,000 organized women; she is chairman of the Committee on Management of the Lloyd Mifflin Memorial, Pennsylvania's teachers' home; she has been a member of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association five times in the last eight years; she has been a member of the Tenure Committee of the National Education Association for five years; she has been appointed a delegate to the World Federation of Education Associations on three different occasions; she is a member of the National Education Association's committees on international relations and teacher retirement; and in 1930-31 she was vicepresident of this great national organization.

Honors so varied and so continuous as those enumerated above come only to one of proved service. It is because of this proved leadership in association affairs that Pennsylvania presents her in nomination for the presidency of this great National Education Association. The years that lie ahead are critical and it is because of the service which we know *Jessie Gray* can render education nationally that we present her for the presidency of the National Education Association.

It is with keen pleasure, both personally and professionally, that as president of the Pennsylvania State Education Association I place in nomination the name of *Miss Jessie Gray*, a classroom teacher of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Thank you.

Secretary Crabtree: Alaska. (This delegation yielded to Washington.)

Washington: Mr. Chairman, Washington yields to Pennsylvania.

Mr. M. S. Bentz (Pennsylvania): Mr. Chairman, last evening when the principal speaker of the morning addressed the life members she said that she had been informed that when a person became a Past President, that she immediately became a dead one, and she voiced also her opinion that she was not going to be a dead one. You notice from what she had to say that she is not a dead one. I have the pleasure of expressing to you that we have in Pennsylvania a past president who is not a dead one. As I preceded in the presidency my good esteemed friend who placed in nomination *Jessie Gray*, I was called to Philadelphia to speak to the Philadelphians in their gathering and every time that *Jessie Gray* was the esteemed president of that organization, she managed them just as well as did *Florence Hale* manage them this morning when she indicated how they should fix the mike for her.

Jessie Gray, as has been stated, has had a varied experience but the thing I would like to bring to you most particularly is not only her ability but her humanitarian interests in the care of the teachers of Pennsylvania. If you could go to our teachers' home you would find that *Jessie Gray* has animated the spirit, that she has guided the destinies, and I feel sure that if she is elected, and I am hoping she may be elected, to this honorable position that she will guide us thruout this coming year as successfully as we have been guided this last year.

Secretary Crabtree: Arizona.

Arizona: A point of information. Mr. President, may I ask whether *Miss Gray* is a regular classroom, a model teacher, or a critic teacher? We are not sure.

Dr. Frank B. Haas: Mr. President, may I attempt to answer that question?

Secretary Crabtree: You wish to come up here on the platform?

Dr. Haas: I think not. As I understand, the question is, is *Miss Gray* a classroom teacher, a model teacher, or a critic teacher?

Arizona: Not quite. Is she a regular classroom teacher or a model teacher or a critic teacher? We are not sure here.

Dr. Haas: My experience is that there is a varied terminology thruout the country. I will tell you what *Miss Gray* is. *Miss Gray* is a regular classroom teacher, responsible for teaching a class of children every day.

(As the roll call of states proceeded Arkansas gave way to Colorado and *Miss Johnson* asked for recognition.)

Miss Inez Johnson (Colorado): I would like to say to *Miss Hale* that out in Colorado we love and revere and trust the National Education Association. The trust and reverence that has come there has come because we have had those devoted to the nth degree to the great cause of the National Education Association and Colorado deems it an honor and a great privilege to present to you today a candidate for president of this great organization.

At this time I want to present one who has been on guard, as was so ably expressed to you this morning that the teachers of this organization should be. I want to present to you the president of the Classroom Teachers Association of Denver, who will nominate *Anna Laura Force*, one of Colorado's greatest educators, one of America's greatest educators, one who has been an inspiration to the rank and file of the educators and teachers of our state. I take it as a rare privilege to present to you *Miss Elizabeth Ferguson*, the president of the Classroom Teachers Association, who will nominate our candidate.

Miss Elizabeth Ferguson (Colorado): In presenting one for the presidency of the National Education Association the classroom teachers of Denver feel honored to voice the sentiment of all the members of the educational profession of Colorado. We feel that being president of this great Association is one of the greatest honors that can come to any individual. The person who is nominated for this position should possess the highest qualifications. His goal should be commensurate with the noble goals of the men and women who founded our organization and of the splendid executives who have succeeded them. He should be above the petty jealousies and personal aggrandizements. The president of this organization should possess vision, a store of knowledge; he should understand all educational problems, whether they be among those in our group or those among the laity. He should understand the workings of this organization in order to solve these problems most effectively. He should be broad of vision and understanding, of executive ability and general qualities of leadership that are necessary for the president of this great organization; breadth of vision and understanding will recognize all educational needs and achievements in all sections of our country, whether they be of the smallest rural school or in the great universities; executive ability and general qualities of leadership are necessary for the president who would meet these needs.

Colorado does not present its candidate because she is a native of our state or because she comes from the West, or because she belongs to any special group in our profession. She is presented because of the reasons I have stated, because her identification with the cause of education is so broad and so deep that she belongs to all sections of our great land and to all groups in our profession.

Her personality, executive ability, and leadership, developed thru long years of active participation in the work of city, state, and national associations, will make her a most efficient and gracious president.

In the name of the educational profession of Colorado, I take great pleasure in presenting in nomination the name of *Miss Anna Laura Force* for president of the National Education Association.

As the call proceeded, the delegations of Delaware, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, North Dakota, and Texas seconded the nomination of *Miss Gray*.

The following states, Kansas, Nebraska, New Mexico, and Wyoming, seconded the nomination of *Miss Force*.

Miss Sara H. Fahey (asked to speak for New York following roll call): I had the honor some months ago of having Pennsylvania request me to second this endorsement and I was delighted to do so for two serious reasons. I think that the great problem before us today is securing publicity for education thru our educational organizations and thru our schools. To me it is wonderful—the Pennsylvania organizations, particularly the Philadelphia city organizations, and how they have fared under the leadership of *Miss Gray*. Secondly, I want to say that today, outside the

National Education Association, we have small groups here and there perhaps, not very dangerous as yet, but still radical groups of teachers who do not understand the general policies of the N. E. A. and who have a notion that they may succeed better by themselves, and this is such an opportune time to show them that the great National Education Association is wholly democratic in its tendencies and looks everywhere thruout the field, whether among teachers or among administrators, for vision and ability, knowledge of the situation, readiness to meet the problems of education, and enthusiasm for the education of the children of America. This Association was born in Philadelphia, and like loyal children who have neglected their parents for so long, it seems to me since in seventy-six years Philadelphia has claimed no candidate, that it is proper for us this year, with all those needs before us, to have a classroom teacher, to stir up the classroom teachers to membership in the N. E. A. that we should endorse this classroom teacher. Thank you.

Miss Frances Harden (Illinois): On behalf of the largest group in the whole field of education, the group that represents 80,000 of the membership in the National Education Association, the group that has been honored but once in all the seventy-six years of its existence by the National Education Association with the presidency, on behalf of the classroom teachers I wish to endorse the candidacy of *Miss Jessie Gray*, a classroom teacher.

President Rosier: Now under the bylaws the Representative Assembly is empowered to elect eleven vicepresidents. These are honors that are desired by many and we will now call the roll of states for the presentation of candidates for vice-president. I wish that those presenting candidates would see that the proper name is brought up here to the secretary. *Secretary Crabtree* suggests that those who are going to present names for vicepresidents step up to the front and leave the name of your candidate after you have made your presentation. The roll call will now proceed for candidates for vicepresident.

As the secretary called the roll of states the following responded:

Mr. John E. Brown (Alabama): I would like to place in nomination for vice-president of the National Education Association, the state superintendent of education of Alabama, *Arthur F. Harman*, a rural-school teacher, city superintendent, county superintendent, and now state superintendent of education.

Mr. W. T. Longshore (Missouri): Members of the Assembly, Missouri has the honor of presenting the name of one of Missouri's greatest educators, that of *Henry S. Gerling*, superintendent of schools of St. Louis, Missouri. *Mr. Gerling* started out as a classroom teacher. He was then an elementary-school principal, one of the greatest positions in education. Then he became a high-school principal, a superintendent, superintendent of schools of St. Louis at this time. He is a man who is dearly beloved in his own neighborhood, by his own teachers, and by the community. He has been president of the State Teachers Association. He is an example of a successful superintendent that carries with him his schools, his board of education and is representative as a city man. He has been very liberal and is very much thought of in his community for his relation to relief work and he not only has said it with his mouth but he has been liberal with his contribution. So it gives Missouri great pleasure to present to you the honorable superintendent, *Henry S. Gerling* for vicepresident.

Mr. C. W. Jackson (California): California takes great pleasure in presenting to you a candidate for the vicepresident. The state of California is fully represented in every gathering of the N. E. A. It is well known to you as one of the leading states of education and we present for our nominee today *Frederick F. Martin* of Redondo Beach, a man well qualified to stand with the best in educational circles thruout the country.

Miss Helen T. Collins (Connecticut): Mr. President, Connecticut takes great pleasure in presenting to this audience the name of its commissioner of education for the vicepresidency of this Association. He needs no introduction to you. His eloquence at your meetings and his work in the field of education speak for him.

It is an honor to me and to the delegation to place before you the name of *Ernest W. Butterfield* as candidate for vicepresident.

Mr. H. V. Holloway (Delaware): Delaware, whose beautiful blue banner hangs in the east of this hall, the source of light, begs to present as a candidate for the vicepresidency of this Association a past president of two state educational associations, *Superintendent S. M. Stouffer* of the city of Wilmington. And inasmuch as this is the first time that Delaware, who stands in tie-place for second in percentage of membership in all the states of the Union, has offered a candidate we hope that that candidate will receive your support.

Miss Edith Grosvenor (District of Columbia): The District of Columbia wants to put in nomination for vicepresident of the National Education Association one who served you another time as vicepresident. He has twice been elected president of our state association and is supervising principal of one of the divisions in the District of Columbia. I, therefore, take pleasure in nominating *Selden M. Ely*, District of Columbia, for vicepresident.

Florida: Mr. President, Florida is very proud to second the candidacy of her good neighbor *Superintendent Harman* of Alabama.

Georgia: Mr. Chairman, Georgia unanimously and enthusiastically seconds the nomination of *Dr. Harman* of Alabama.

Mr. Robert E. McConnell (Washington): Washington wishes to place in nomination the name of *Superintendent Orville C. Pratt* of the city of Spokane for vicepresident of this Association. *Mr. Pratt* has been a member of the Board of Consultants of the National School of Finance, a member of the Resolutions Committee of the Department of Superintendence, vicepresident of the National Education Association, president of the Inland Empire Education Association, president of the Washington Education Association, and is now state director from Washington. Washington takes pleasure in commending him to you for vicepresident.

Mr. Robert C. Moore (Illinois): Illinois presents as candidate for vicepresident a man who has been a classroom teacher; however, he has degenerated into a mere superintendent of schools in a city of Illinois. He has the very active support and the most hearty sympathy of the classroom teachers of Illinois, who have elected him as a member of the Board of Directors of the Illinois State Teachers Association. He is also the chairman of the Legislative Committee of our Illinois State Teachers Association, and has worked most effectively this year in preventing bad legislation and actually getting a few beneficial legislations passed by our Illinois Legislature. He will probably soon be elected as the president of our Illinois State Teachers Association. Moreover he is state senator in the Illinois Legislature, which you should not hold against him of course. As a state senator he is very helpful and an effective member of the Committee on Education of the Illinois State Senate. Therefore, as the spokesman for the Illinois delegation I feel honored this morning to nominate for vicepresident of the National Education Association *Noah M. Mason* of Oglesby, teacher, superintendent, statesman, gentleman.

Mr. Frank G. Pickell (New Jersey): You heard this morning a very inspiring address from the past president of this Association, *Florence Hale*, who spoke in behalf of the classroom teachers, and goodness knows in this critical hour we need more *Florence Hales*. Now if I could present in person the candidate that New Jersey wishes to propose, there isn't a single member of this great delegate body who would not be glad to vote for her. She has ability, she has executive beauty—I mean she has executive ability. You think an executive can't be beautiful. Well, I will admit it as far as the men go. She has executive ability—she has personality and charm. She is one of the outstanding characters in the teaching profession in the state of New Jersey. Now I am not just using words. I have had her on the executive committee of our State Teachers Association. She has been president of her own city teachers association. She is a classroom teacher and she is one person in the state of New Jersey who has not found it necessary to be called from the noble job of teaching children day after day, than which there is no higher calling, in order

to be given these honors in the state of New Jersey. She is still a classroom teacher and these honors have come to her as such. New Jersey takes great pleasure in presenting to you for your kind consideration—and she is a charming lady I tell you—*Miss Mattie S. Doremus*.

Mr. Charles Carroll (Rhode Island): The greatest state of the oldest republic in the world, the first American state, having declared its independence two months ahead of Congress, the seat of the first public schools within the United States, presents as its candidate for vicepresident *Alexander J. Stoddard* of Providence, who is the superintendent of schools in the oldest existing system of free public schools in the world.

Mr. A. C. Flora (South Carolina): South Carolina, the home of the palmetto and pine, wishes to present today as candidate for the vicepresidency of this organization a man who has been president of our state association, a leader of education in our state, *W. H. Ward* of Waterbury.

Tennessee: Tennessee has no candidate but is happy to second the nomination of *Superintendent Ward* of the neighboring state of South Carolina.

Mr. W. A. James (Texas): Mr. President, the Lone Star State of Texas puts in nomination *Henry W. Stilwell*, now president of the Texas State Teachers Association, president of the Junior College, Texarkana, Texas, a former high-school principal, a grade-school principal, a classroom teacher, a country teacher, a scholar, a gentleman—*Henry W. Stilwell* of Texarkana.

Mr. W. L. Taplin (Vermont): The Vermont delegation wishes to present a candidate for vicepresident of the Association. Those of you who are in attendance at the national convention regularly, many of you will know our candidate. We wish to present *Caroline S. Woodruff*, who is principal of the Castleton Normal School, a former classroom teacher also, and now a teacher of classroom teachers. She is the first woman to become president of the state association in Vermont. She has been president of the National Council of Administrative Women in Education. She has been for many years a director of the National Education Association in Vermont and is a sincere and loyal worker and servant in the cause of education. I hope she will receive your favorable consideration for vicepresident.

Miss Lucy Mason Holt (Virginia): Virginia, the mother of states, asks your kind consideration for the request of the littlest state. Delaware has asked us for the first time to give them a vicepresident. He has taught—he is a superintendent—he is still willing to learn. Let us grant Delaware her request.

Mr. Donald DuShane (Indiana): The present Committee on Resolutions elected a year ago will have a meeting this afternoon at 4:30 o'clock in private dining room No. 9. This will be the final and most important meeting of this Committee. There is a representative from every state on it and you are urged to attend. Tomorrow afternoon at 4 o'clock the new Committee on Resolutions to present the report for next year will meet in room 422-A at 4 o'clock to organize for next year.

President Rosier: We have one other office for which to present candidates. It has been customary to have the same man in this office for so long I guess we had almost forgotten to elect him. Nominations are now in order for the nomination of treasurer. We will not call the roll of states on this.

Mr. Albert Free (Indiana): It is perhaps superfluous that we should attempt to introduce to the members of this Assembly Indiana's candidate for reelection for the position of treasurer of this Association. Perhaps no man who has been connected with this Association enjoys more acquaintance, has made broader contacts, or is held in higher regard than *Dean Henry Lester Smith* of Indiana University. I would add this one thing only. It is said, "That a prophet is not without honor save in his own country." *Dean Smith* is the exception to the rule which proves that saying. We have been having some troubles down in Indiana, as you have in other places. We feel perhaps we have come to somewhat of a solution of those troubles and I want to say that thruout this controversy and dissension that we have had, that perhaps in no state in the Union have the professional leaders, the people who have formed the educational policies and have promulgated the educational programs, enjoyed

the confidence of public officials, as large a percentage of the laity as in the state of Indiana. And I want to add that largely this is due to the leadership of *Dean Smith* in educational circles in our state. He has stood like a rock. He has been reasonable, he has been affable, he has been capable, and we are proud of him.

Using another figure, if our ship has been brought to a safe port, while we are willing to grant to certain political leaders the title of captain of that ship, keep in mind always that we had a first mate beside him that was wise in his counsel and able in his direction in the person of *Dean Smith* of Indiana. He has served as treasurer of this organization since 1925 and in all that time he never has fled to Europe but once—and he came back in due time. He has taken great pains in the detail work that has devolved in the administration of this office and we of Indiana feel that the National Education Association could do no better than return him to this honor.

President Rosier: Are there any other nominations for treasurer? There being none, I will declare the nominations closed. Now just one word in conclusion. I will simply announce that the various candidates for state directors which were placed in nomination by the various state delegations yesterday at noon will be printed on the ballot. You understand that directors must be elected by the Representative Assembly. While you nominate the directors in your state delegations, which is virtually an election, their names must be printed on the ballot and I request you to observe that fact and vote for them tomorrow or on Thursday. Are there any other announcements? The question is raised here as to whether the treasurer goes on the ballot. Yes, the treasurer is elected by the Representative Assembly the same as the other officers.

If there are no other questions or announcements the Representative Assembly stands adjourned until 9 o'clock tomorrow morning.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Second Business Session, Wednesday Morning, July 5, 1933

The second business session of the Representative Assembly convened at 9 a.m. in the Grand Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel. A musical program was rendered by the Tuley High School Orchestra, under the direction of *Irving Letchinger*. Colorado gave its stunt supporting the candidacy of *Miss Laura Force*.

President Rosier: The Representative Assembly will now be in order. I will ask the audience to stand while the *Rev. Peter Peterson*, President of the Chicago Lutheran Council, gives the invocation. (The invocation was most fitting and valuable to members.)

President Rosier: The first speaker on the program this morning is *Paul C. Stetson*, president of the Department of Superintendence, and superintendent of schools of Indianapolis, Indiana. It is a very great pleasure to me personally and officially to present to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association the president of the Department of Superintendence, *Paul C. Stetson*, who will speak to you on the topic, "A National Outlook On Education." (The address is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: I shall vary the program at this moment with a little diversion. We have on our platform this morning some guests. I think we school administrators and school people have overlooked a powerful force in this whole campaign for education in this country. As a matter of fact those who are the most vitally concerned in the efficiency of the schools and in the preservation of the schools, and the upholding of educational standards are the young people who are students in our high schools, our colleges, and so this morning we have as our guests on the platform some representatives of high-school student bodies of this and other communities.

Recently the high-school students of the city of Chicago sent a delegation to Washington to confer with Cabinet members and other government officials about the educational situation in this community and in this country, and I am told by *Miss Williams*, who accompanied those people, that they presented the educational situation in this country with peculiar force and persuasiveness. So I want to take just a few minutes to present these high-school young men to you. I have asked each one of them to take about two or three minutes. (He introduced *Jack Light*, *Robert Watt*, *Edward Schlick*, and *Joseph Faulkner*. The audience was thrilled by the fine addresses delivered by these young men.)

President Rosier: We are to have the pleasure at this time of hearing from the President of one of our great Departments of the National Education Association. I introduce at this time *Mrs. Blanche Preble*, President of the Department of Classroom Teachers of the N. E. A., and President of the Illinois State Teachers Association of Chicago. She will speak to us on the topic, "The Teachers At The Helm." (The address is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: We are making good time with this program. I find little diversions here and there assist us in that course and just now before we have these interesting and important committee reports, I am going to give the delegation from New York five minutes.

Delegate (New York): On behalf of the teachers of New York state, the New York State Delegation wishes to present the rallying song, "Stand By The Schools" to the National Education Association, and thru it to the children of the country and of the nation. The words of this song were written on the way home from a great N. E. A. meeting by *Superintendent W. H. Holmes* of Mount Vernon. *Dr. Holmes* is a life member of this Association. For over thirty years he has been a militant champion of the rights of children and youth. The music was written by *Irving Cheyette*, band director in the Mount Vernon Schools, and lately of the Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University. During the last year in New York state this song has been used by teachers and parent-teacher gatherings. It has the power to call to action. As one woman said, "When I heard a great group of growing boys singing the words, 'Stand by the schools, don't sell them for a price; stand by the schools with prayer and sacrifice,' I realized I must do something for the schools and I enlisted in their defense."

The audience then sang the following:

STAND BY THE SCHOOLS

(Dedicated to the Children and Youth of America)

Words by *W. H. Holmes*, superintendent of schools, Mount Vernon, New York;
music by *Irving Cheyette*, band instructor, Public Schools, Mount Vernon,
New York

Stand by the Schools! The clarion call rings clear.
Stand by the Schools! With courage free from fear.
Stand by the Schools! There must be no retreat.
Stand by the Schools! To falter means defeat.

Stand by the Schools! They must not suffer wrong.
Stand by the Schools! And keep the nation strong.
Stand by the Schools! Don't sell them for a price.
Stand by the Schools! With prayer and sacrifice.

Stand by the Schools! Make it a sacred pledge.
Stand by the Schools! Our children's heritage.
Stand by the Schools! The millions in them cry.
Stand by the Schools! America! Stand by!

President Rosier: We are now ready for these committee reports, which I am sure will be interesting and profitable to all of us today. As has been mentioned by different persons on this program, early in the year the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence joined together in creating a Joint Commission for the study of the Emergency in Education. That Commission has been doing a great deal of fine and valuable work and its chairman at this time will give some report of the activities and the accomplishment of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. I have the pleasure of introducing the chairman, *John K. Norton*, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: May I again repeat the statement which I made yesterday, that an obligation and responsibility rest upon those who are appointed delegates to this Assembly. You are here representing large groups of people back home and you have an obligation. You assembled slowly this morning and so we are delayed in our program and I shall probably have to run a few minutes past 12 o'clock but I think that is justified in view of the fact that you came in more than fifteen minutes late.

Next is the report of the Committee on the Economic Status of the Teacher. This report will be presented by the chairman, *B. R. Buckingham* of Boston, Massachusetts. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: I want to commend the Delegate Assembly for its faithfulness to duty. You know we are running in these programs on daylight saving time. It is only 11 o'clock regularly. We are now to have the report from the Legislative Commission. I regret that *Dr. Hall*, superintendent of public instruction of the state of Virginia, cannot be here but we are fortunate in that the report of the committee will be presented to the Representative Assembly by *Dr. Strayer* of New York. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: May I ask if the chairman of the Elections Committee is present? We will have an announcement concerning the election made. While the chairman is coming to the platform may I emphasize the importance of every delegate getting his credentials so that we may have a full vote of the Representative Assembly tomorrow. It is important in this, a democratic Representative Assembly, that all delegates should remember tomorrow and exercise the right of suffrage in the selection of the officers of the Association. Now I recognize *Mr. Thalman*, chairman of the Elections Committee.

Mr. John W. Thalman (Illinois): Tomorrow is election day and we expect a large vote. We want to have a quiet, orderly and fair election and we want to avoid confusion as far as possible. The Committee on Elections this morning decided to make of you two requests:

First, use care in marking your ballots. Do not vote for more candidates for any office than the number to be elected. For instance, eleven vicepresidents are to be elected. You may vote for one up to eleven. If you vote for twelve or more the ballot will be thrown out for that office. In fact, all ballots that are defaced in any way will be thrown out.

Second, all candidates for office and their friends are requested to refrain from electioneering by handing out candidate cards about the voting place or in the exhibition room or the entrances thereto. We know that there will be a spirited election this year because of the fact that we have the two candidates for president. We want to avoid confusion as far as possible.

The same procedure in fact will be followed at this election as is followed in your state at the time of the national or state election. So it will facilitate matters and help the committee if you will be as careful as possible in your voting. We want everybody to vote and we want to be able to count every vote that is cast.

President Rosier: Just now—and I will ask Iowa to be getting ready—I am going to present what I think is a remarkable exhibit. You know Chicago hasn't had all of the stage; Iowa has had some things going on this year too—you have

heard stories of the farmer revolts and revolutions in Iowa—but in the midst of all that we have a wonderful delegation of country boys and girls from Iowa here this morning and I want to introduce them to you just now.

(*Miss Agnes Samuelson* came to the platform.)

President Rosier: I want to introduce a great educational leader of Iowa, *Miss Agnes Samuelson*.

(A long line of young boys and girls stood in front of the speakers' platform.)

Miss Samuelson (Iowa): These are about half of the boys and girls who came yesterday to demonstrate the Iowa school music movement on the program of the Rural Department of the National Education Association. They came from twelve counties over in Iowa. *Professor Fullerton* is the originator of this pioneer movement in rural-school music. If he is around here some place, perhaps you would like to have one minute of song from these boys and girls.

Professor Fullerton: One stanza of the "Sailor's Song." Each one of these boys and girls represents a thousand in Iowa. I wish we had a full choir for you, just 27,000—there are about 27,000.

(The group of boys and girls sang the "Sailor's Song" as requested.)

President Rosier: May I request that the delegates to the Representative Assembly assemble a little more promptly tomorrow morning than you did this morning. You are adjourned until tomorrow morning.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Third Business Session, Thursday Morning, July 6, 1933

The third business session of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, which was scheduled to convene at 9 a.m. in the Grand Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel, was opened by a musical program rendered by the Marshall High School Orchestra, under the direction of *Merle Isaac*.

Toronto, Canada, presented a stunt, introducing a very charmingly gowned young woman with a large basket of flowers on her arm, whom they called "Miss Toronto," and who addressed the Assembly as follows:

Miss Toronto: Educators of the nation: Toronto, the Queen City of Canada, invites you for 1934. From the vantage ground of our common history, our equal heritage in the land and the art of English speaking people, from the stronghold of shared ideals of life, and education to live, we extend hands of welcome to you to visit your sister nation.

Come over her 3000-mile border, that boasts never a fort or a gun. Come, let us clasp hands of friendship in historic Fort York, where our forefathers met in bitter struggle in 1813.

We shall be 100 years old next year, and we are planning a birthday party. Won't you come?

The meeting was formally called to order at 9:35 a.m. by *President Rosier*.

President Rosier: The Representative Assembly will please be in order. *Bishop Emeritus Samuel P. Spreng*, of the Evangelical Church of Naperville, Illinois, will give the invocation. Will you please stand. (The invocation was pronounced and the president introduced *State Superintendent Harman* for an address which is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: We will proceed now with our committee reports. The first committee to make a report this morning will be the one on Retirement Allowances, and I have the pleasure of presenting at this time *Miss Anna Laura Force*, principal of the Lake Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, who is chairman of this committee. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

(It was moved by *Mr. Saunders* and seconded that the report of the Committee on Retirement Allowances be received and made a part of the proceedings. The question was called for, motion put, and carried and the report declared accepted as given.)

President Rosier: At this time I call on *Superintendent Holloway* of the state of Delaware to come to the platform and make a statement and a motion.

Mr. H. V. Holloway (Delaware): I think you will agree with me that the coming of this Association to the city of Chicago has been a real privilege. I feel that the president used very wise judgment indeed when he carried out the directions of the Board of Directors in choosing Chicago as the place of meeting.

I therefore move, Mr. Chairman, that the privilege of the floor be given to *Mr. John M. Fewkes*, teacher of physical education in the Tilden Technical High School, for a ten-minute statement of the Chicago teachers' situation.

President Rosier: It has been moved and seconded that *Mr. Fewkes*, who is known to many of you, who is certainly known here in the city of Chicago as a leader among groups of teachers, be given ten minutes to make a statement from the standpoint of his group, representing many hundreds of teachers. I might say that an audience as large as the one now assembled here in this Representative Assembly greeted me yesterday afternoon at 4:30. *Mr. Fewkes* represents that element. The group assembled here at 4:30 yesterday extended a cordial welcome to the president of the National Education Association and to this convention. Is there any discussion of this question, this motion?

(The question being called for, the motion was put and unanimously carried.)

President Rosier: I now invite *Mr. Fewkes* of Chicago to come to the platform and make a statement to the Representative Assembly.

Mr. Fewkes (Illinois): As Chairman of the volunteer Emergency Committee, which comprises not hundreds of the teachers but all of the teachers of the city of Chicago, I wish again the opportunity of greeting you and to welcome you to the city of Chicago. I received a telegram from your national headquarters asking as to whether I thought it would be best for the convention to be held here or elsewhere. My reply to that was simply this: that I believed that the National Education Association convention could do more good by coming to the city of Chicago at this time than by staying away.

I wish to greet all you teachers of the nation. I wish to assure you that the teachers of Chicago appreciate the fact that not Chicago alone at this present time is in dire distress insofar as its teaching and education are concerned. We know that in many places distress is much more severe than it is here in Chicago. We do not ask that the National Education Association's convention direct all its sympathy toward Chicago—in fact we have had too much sympathy already—but we do hope and urge upon you that you realize that this attack upon public education is national; that there is a real organized attempt to curtail public education. We as teachers in the past have gone along carrying high ideals to the pupils. We have them within us. They have been inculcated in our systems until we feel that we are the performance of ideal living, of ideal citizenship. We feel that we have carried out these ideals in the past, that we have put them over to our pupils, that we have taught them to our pupils. As our former speaker here this morning said, we have always carried our ideals before the pupils and we always shall. We shall go ahead with the highest ideals and ambitions for education, but we must bring home the fact at the present time that we can no longer limit ourselves merely to theory; that we must make practical application of the ideals and the principles we have been putting over to our children; that we, as their teachers, must be their examples; that we must carry our ideals into the civic organizations of our cities, of our communities, and of our nation. We must begin as teachers to be more than just mere classroom teachers; we have to get out among other citizens of our communities and help lead back to prosperity, help lead back to decency in government.

(He continued his address amidst applause, in a fine, well-balanced statement on the rights of teachers and pupils, closing with the following.)

The situation in the city of Chicago now is this: Five and one-half months is owing to the teachers in pay; they have not been paid since the first of January. At the present time there is supposed to be on foot a scheme to finance the schools

for the rest of the year 1933 and to pay back salaries for the last semester. A bill providing for a bond issue was passed in the legislature and is waiting the governor's signature. We have not been able to ascertain as to whether it has been signed or whether it has not. Even in this emergency they delay. Unless that bond issue passes, unless the bonds are sold, there has been no provision for the opening of schools next fall. Is it any wonder that your teachers in Chicago are aroused; that we feel for education in the city of Chicago so greatly that we are even willing to walk the cobblestones and the street car tracks of the city of Chicago to arouse the public to the situation and let them know what is happening to their public schools?

I thank you for your time. It has been fine of you people, busy as you are with national education, to permit me, a representative of just one little group that is having a struggle, to take up your time when you have such important things to consider. Won't you go home, tho, with the idea that the most important thing of all is our struggle for public education?

President Rosier: We will continue with our committee reports. The next is a report of the Committee on Rural Education. May I explain that the chairman of this Committee, *Dr. Willis A. Sutton*, owing to an automobile accident, is unavoidably detained and the report will be submitted by *Miss Agnes Samuelson*, a member of the Committee, state superintendent of public instruction of Iowa. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

Miss Samuelson (following her address): Mr. President, I move the adoption of this report.

President Rosier: You have heard the report of the Committee on Rural Education and it has been moved and seconded that it be adopted.

The parliamentarian calls my attention to the fact that this report involves a recommendation for the employment of a specialist in this department, which is a matter that should be acted upon first by the Board of Directors. May we have a motion to amend this?

Miss Samuelson: The action has already been taken and passed.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders: That is all right then.

President Rosier: There is a little misunderstanding here. The Board of Directors had already acted upon that.

(The question called for, motion put, and carried, and the report declared adopted as given.)

President Rosier: The next is the report of the Committee To Cooperate with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. The Chairman of this Committee is *N. C. Newbold*, state director of Negro education of North Carolina. *Mr. Newbold* is absent today and the report will be given by *Mr. S. L. Smith*, a member of the Committee, of Nashville, Tennessee. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

The President: The next report is that of the Committee on International Relations. I have the pleasure to introduce at this time *Miss Annie C. Woodward*, Somerville, Massachusetts, chairman of the Committee. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

Miss Woodward (after presenting the report): Mr. President, I offer this report as a report of progress and recommend that it be adopted.

Voice: Second the motion.

(The question being called for, the motion was put and unanimously carried and the report declared adopted as read.)

President Rosier: We have the feeling that the National Education Association ought to be carrying on studies in the philosophy and theory of education and we have set up a Committee on the Social and Economic Goals in Education. This Committee has made a preliminary report this year, which you found in your envelopes. I hope you will carry that report home with you and that you will study it thoroly and carefully and make a digest of it back home, because it is going to be, as it proceeds in its development, one of the most important contributions to the philosophy

of education. At this time I want to present to you for a preliminary report the chairman of the Committee, *Dr. F. J. Kelly*, chief of the Division of Colleges and Professional Schools of the United States Office of Education. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

Dr. Kelly (after presenting report): I move that the report be received and adopted and made a part of the proceedings.

(The motion being seconded, the question called for, the motion was put and unanimously carried and the report declared received and adopted as given.)

President Rosier: *Mr. Whittenberg*, state director of Illinois, has just an announcement of a little matter to present.

Mr. A. L. Whittenberg (Illinois): The Board of Directors of the N. E. A. authorized me to bring to you this morning a recommendation from that Board. You are advised that it concerns the creation of a new Department of the N. E. A., a Department of Art, and I am sure you will hail with some joy the courage of certain members of your great Association who will come forward at this time when elimination, and repression and restraint seem to be the order, with the proposition of creating a Department of Art of the N. E. A. *Miss Elizabeth Wells Robertson* of Chicago, a district superintendent of art in the schools of this city, some years ago undertook with others the organization of this Department. Permit me to present to you for the moment *Miss Elizabeth Robertson* of Chicago, who has had much to do with the organization of this proposition which we hope you will create into a new department.

Miss Elizabeth Wells Robertson (Illinois): The Conference on Art Education has fulfilled all its requirements. Because art is an important subject, necessary to the development and culture of the children of America, and because this is a particularly critical period in its life, I suggest that we create now a Department of Art in the National Education Association.

Mr. A. L. Whittenberg: *President Rosier*, I move you that this new department be created.

(The motion being seconded, the question was called for, motion put, and unanimously carried, and the new Department of Art declared a newly created department of the N. E. A.)

President Rosier: May I say that the chairman of the Art Committee has been the chairman of the Entertainment Committee for this convention in Chicago. She held a luncheon here of the new Art Department on Tuesday, I believe it was, which was one of the most important luncheons in the Association this year. There were 400 people at her luncheon. That was a very fine beginning for a new Department. Tomorrow forenoon is going to be one of the most interesting sessions of the Representative Assembly that we have ever held and I do hope you will stay with us until the motion for final adjournment has been made. You are now adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Fourth Business Session, Friday Morning, July 7, 1933

The fourth business session of the Representative Assembly was scheduled to convene at 9 a.m. and was opened by a musical program of a combined chorus from the Funston, Key, and Stowe Elementary Schools, and thereafter the meeting was called to order at 9:30 o'clock a.m. by *President Rosier*.

President Rosier: The Representative Assembly will please be in order and we will stand while the *Rev. Von Ogden Vogt* of the First Unitarian Church, Chicago, will give the invocation. (The invocation was pronounced. These invocations have become a fixed and important part of the program.)

President Rosier: The first committee report this morning is that of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association. The chairman of this committee is not present today but a report signed by the

members of the committee has been filed for the *Proceedings*. If there are no objections, I will receive this report and order that it be made a part of the *Proceedings*. There being no objections it is so ordered. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: The next report is that of the National Commission on the Enrichment of Adult Life. I present at this time the president of the Commission, *Dr. James A. Moyer*, state director of university extension, State House, Boston, Massachusetts. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: At this time I present to you, for a five-minute statement, *Dr. Raymond Hatton*, professor of political science, Northwestern University. I am sure you will be interested in the brief statement he has to make.

Dr. Raymond Hatton (Illinois): Altho my appearance at this meeting was recently arranged, my interest in matters of education and the effect of our public-school system upon our social and economic life is not recent. From the time I entered school in a country district of southern Indiana at six years of age, except for one year at the end of my high school and one year out of college because of ill health, I have been constantly connected with the school systems, either as pupil or instructor. If anything was needed to add to my interest it was the fact that during the last three years I have been chairman of the Chicago Commission on Citizenship Training in the public schools of Chicago, appointed by *Superintendent Bogan*. Along with the rest of you I have been alarmed and appalled at the effect or possible effect of this present depression and hysteria which has arisen from it upon our school systems. . . . Unfortunately a good many newspapers in the United States, I think perhaps without due consideration, have taken their part in this unwise attack upon the schools. It is for that reason I was delighted yesterday in speaking with the editor, the managing editor of the *Chicago Herald and Examiner*, to have him say to me that in Chicago and thruout the United States the newspapers in the Hearst system proposed to see to it, so far as they were able to see to it, that the school system of the United States was not wrecked or even permanently damaged by these unwise attacks.

* * * That to me is one of the most hopeful things I have discovered in what I hope is the turn of the tide in these unwise, unjust, unfair attacks upon our educational system. Too few people realize that we are entering upon a new order, a new order in which I am satisfied that the American people are increasingly taking as their ideal one in which material security must be insisted upon, because they are coming increasingly to believe that it is possibly an arrangement in which, as the previous speaker has indicated, the necessity must be more and more leisure—an arrangement in which, therefore, we must adjust ourselves and adjust ourselves rather rapidly in the future to these new conditions. And in the processes of that adjustment no one has suggested, indeed I believe no one can devise hastily any instrumentality to take the place of the public schools. It is not only necessary that our schools be not permanently or even temporarily seriously damaged or threatened but that they must continue in full strength in order that we may make that adjustment, in order that we may train people for the future for that wise use of leisure which is necessary not only in justice to them but which is necessary for the very social safety and political safety of our own institutions.

(After having spoken further on conditions and remedies, he closed as follows):

Those are things I am glad to come here to say to you and I never have felt more heartened than I was when *Mr. Watson* said to me yesterday that the Hearst papers thruout the United States intended to support that policy.

President Rosier: In addition to what has been said by *Dr. Hatton*, may I take advantage of this occasion to express the appreciation of myself, and I think of all the delegates to this Assembly, of the services especially of two of the great newspapers in this country, the *New York Times* and the *Christian Science Monitor*. Both of these great organs of public opinion have special correspondents at this convention and they have given thruout their complete reports to their papers and those reports have been printed with generous space. I think that is something which

we as educators should deeply appreciate and I want to take advantage of this occasion to say that wherever newspapers and magazines are giving fine and reasonable and loyal support to the principles of public education that the educators of this country have a deep appreciation of their cooperation and support and I think it is time that we should let it be known that magazines and newspapers which extend a reasonable and fair and just support to public education of this country should be appreciated and that we should frown just a little bit on those who are controlled by sinister influences and opposing public education. We deeply appreciate the help of the Hearst papers.

Now for a little diversion at this time, I am giving five or ten minutes to Hawaii. May I say for your information that we have over 150 persons from Hawaii attending this convention.

(At this point one of the delegates from Hawaii came to the platform and hung a very beautiful green lei around *President Rosier's* neck, amid loud applause of the Representative Assembly.)

President Rosier: I esteem it a great honor for the moment to be a member of the delegation from Hawaii.

At this hour we pause for a few minutes to pay tribute to some departed leaders of our great Association. During the past year one of the best known and the most beloved members of this Association passed away, a man who was known probably to more school people in the United States than any other man that ever lived in this country. It seems fitting that a special tribute should be paid to him and I looked all over the field for somebody who might prepare an appropriate tribute and I couldn't think of any one that could do it more fittingly than our own secretary, and so I have asked *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary of the National Education Association, that he present a tribute of respect to *Albert E. Winship*. (The tribute is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: It is necessary for me to make an apology for myself and those who made up this program, in the fact that the report of the Committee on Necrology is not printed here. I had written *Miss Mary McSkimmon* of Boston to take charge of this report this morning and to give especial attention to this particular part of our program. While it is not printed in the program, I am pleased at this time to present *Miss Mary McSkimmon*, a former president of our Association, who will make a report for the Committee on Necrology. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

President Rosier: At this time we are to have the report of the National Council of Education. The chairman, *Dr. William C. Bagley* of New York, who was here earlier in the week, was obliged to go home, but the report will be given by *Mr. Joseph H. Saunders* of Virginia, a member of the Council. (The report is printed elsewhere in this volume. See index.)

Mr. Saunders (after presenting report): I therefore recommend, Mr. President, that the Delegate Assembly approve the action of the Board of Directors in passing on this report.

(The motion being seconded, there being no discussion and the question called for, the motion was put and carried.)

President Rosier: With your permission I think I will vary the order of business slightly and call for the report of the officers before we take up unfinished business and the report of the Committee on Elections. I call now for the annual report of the secretary.

Secretary Crabtree: The report of the secretary has been printed and put in the envelope which you have received. I move that the secretary's report be accepted and put in the volume of *Proceedings*.

(The motion being seconded, the question was called for and motion carried.)

President Rosier: I think that this secretary of ours, if we had time, ought to have a little more attention.

Mr. Crabtree: My report, as I understand it, has already been adopted. I certainly thank the Assembly for its kindness.

President Rosier: I suppose there are a hundred men and women here who could make speeches at this time about the virtues of *Mr. Crabtree* but we will desist. I call now for the report of the treasurer.

Mr. Henry Lester Smith: Mr. President and members of the Assembly: The report of the treasurer has been printed. You will find it in the *Financial Report* and I think I shall not take time to list the important items there except to say that the receipts during the year exceeded the expenditures. Mr. President, I move the receipt and approval of this report.

(Motion seconded, question called for, motion put and carried.)

President Rosier: May I say by way of comment upon the finances of the Association and the report of the treasurer that in these days of business stress and business failure and bank closings and bank failures, and all sorts of economic upheavals, the teachers of the United States in their largest educational organization have given the captains of industry and the bankers and all the great commercial leaders the sign of how they ought to develop and conduct their business.

I call now for the report of the Board of Trustees. *Mr. Saunders.*

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders: The report of the Board of Trustees has been also printed in the *Financial Report*.

(When *Mr. Saunders* announced the reelection of the secretary, the applause was so enthusiastic and continuous that *Mr. Crabtree* stepped forward and bowed in recognition.)

Mr. Saunders: I move the approval of this report, the adoption of this report, and the incorporation of it in the Association's records.

(Motion seconded, question called for, motion put and carried.)

President Rosier: The next is the report of the Budget Committee. I am getting in too big a hurry here. The next is the report of the Committee on Audit, which properly follows the report of the Board of Trustees, and that report will be given by the Chairman, *Herbert C. Hansen* of the city of Chicago.

Mr. Herbert C. Hansen (Illinois): The members of the Auditing Committee appointed by the president, in accordance with the requirements of the constitution, have examined and audited the accounts of the Board of Trustees, the secretary and treasurer of the National Education Association as presented by Wayne-Kendrick, Certified Public Accountants of Washington, D. C., and we find them in fine financial condition. We commend the headquarters staff, the Board of Directors and the Trustees for the excellent management of the funds of the Association. The headquarters staff has displayed a fine morale and unselfish spirit in its donation of free services which has made possible a saving of \$93,000.00 in the appropriations made for the current year by the Representative Assembly.

Mr. President, I move the adoption of this report.

(Motion seconded, put, and carried and the report declared adopted.)

President Rosier: The report of the Budget Committee will be made by *Mr. A. L. Whittenberg*, a member of the Committee and state director from the state of Illinois, in the absence of *L. W. Rogers* of Texas, the chairman.

Mr. Whittenberg (Illinois): This is the concluding report of this convention that deals with finances.

The members of this Committee—*W. B. Mooney* of Colorado, *Annie C. Woodward* of Massachusetts, myself, *Charles Carroll* of Rhode Island, *L. W. Rogers* of Texas, chairman—met in Washington in May, after having made a careful study thru correspondence and otherwise, but in May we spent two days in Washington looking thoroly into your finances. We examined, if you please, the finances from every standpoint and particularly the operation that goes forward under the direction of *Secretary Crabtree* and his official staff. Following that we met in Chicago two days before the convening of this convention and finally put into form the report, a copy of which you have.

Mr. President, I move—I should say first, Mr. President, that this Budget Report came before the Board of Directors on Saturday afternoon and again on Tuesday afternoon and was thoroly approved by the unanimous vote of the Board of Directors. The Board of Directors recommend that the Assembly give a vote of appreciation to the headquarters staff for services and sacrifice. Mr. President, I move that the Representative Assembly adopt this report including the vote of appreciation.

Mr. George W. Wannamaker (Georgia): Second the motion.

President Rosier: It is moved and seconded that the report of the Committee be adopted. Are there any questions?

Mr. DuShane (Indiana): Mr. Chairman, I wish to move that, with the consent of the Board of Directors, \$200 be appropriated for the expenses of the Resolutions Committee for next year.

President Rosier: It has been moved by *Mr. DuShane* and seconded that the report of the Budget Committee be amended to include \$200 for the expenses of the Resolutions Committee. Are there any remarks?

(The question was called for, the motion was put and carried.)

President Rosier: The question is now on the adoption of the report of the Budget Committee as amended.

(The question being called for, the motion was put and carried and the report of the Budget Committee as amended was declared adopted.)

President Rosier: We take up now the item of unfinished business. This includes proposed amendments to the Bylaws. I will ask *Mr. Saunders* to explain the parliamentary procedure. First explain the amendments and the parliamentary procedure in the consideration of these amendments.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders (Parliamentarian): I presume you have in your hands your *Official Manual*. All delegates should bring that *Official Manual* to the session where the main business is transacted, that is this session. On that assumption, if you will turn to page 4, you will find at the bottom of page 4 proposed amendments to the bylaws which were submitted as required by the bylaws themselves, at the Atlantic City meeting, and are to be acted upon at this time. (He then explained point by point.)

The effect of the two proposed amendments is to remove from the Representative Assembly 144 ex-officio delegates out of a total of 1500 delegates.

(After further discussion the president spoke as follows:)

President Rosier: Now, members of the Delegate Assembly, I think that the purpose I had in mind has been accomplished. I wanted the Delegate Assembly to understand fully and clearly the direct effects of this amendment, and it seems to me it has been made fairly clear. The whole question, the issue involved here I think is clear to all of you, is a matter of ex-officio representation in this Assembly. The question is now on the adoption and rejection of the amendment and it is open for discussion.

Miss Frances Harden (Illinois): Mr. President, may I move the adoption of the proposed amendments?

Dr. W. H. Holmes: Second the motion.

President Rosier: You have heard the motion. It is moved and seconded that the amendments be adopted. Now the matter is open for discussion.

Miss Frances Harden: Mr. Chairman, may I speak for the amendments?

President Rosier: *Miss Harden*.

Miss Harden: First of all I am going to question the figures that *Mr. Saunders* gave you. Now I am only a first-grade teacher, possibly my mathematical knowledge is not very accurate, but I have checked and re-checked these officers and I do not get the same result that *Mr. Saunders* has given you.

The charter of the National Education Association reads, in part:

“Section 6. That the officers of said corporation shall be a president, twelve vice-presidents, a secretary, a treasurer, a board of directors and an executive committee and a board of trustees.”

The second paragraph of the same section reads—this is simply defining this board of directors that is named in the first paragraph:

"The board of directors shall consist of the president, the first vicepresident, the secretary, the treasurer, the chairman of the board of trustees and one additional member from each state, territory, or district to be elected by the active members for the term of one year or until their successors are chosen, and all of the life directors of the National Education Association."

The next sentence defines life directors:

"The United States Commissioner of Education and all former presidents of the Association now living, all future presidents of the Association hereby incorporated at the close of their respective terms of office, shall be members of the board of directors for life."

Now turn to the bylaws of this Association. In Section 9 we find this: "All of the officers of the N. E. A. named in the charter"—which I have just read to you—"and the state superintendent or commissioner of education of each state, territory, and district shall be ex-officio delegates to the Representative Assembly."

In your program you will find near the back of the program a list of officers. Eliminate all duplication and you will find under the head of "Officers" there are 20. Now I did not count *John Dewey's* name for I don't know what his status is in this body, whether he is ex-officio or not. He is listed as an officer but I did not count his name. If you will add those up you will find there are 20. At the bottom of that same page and on the next page you will find the life directors. If you will add those up, count those and add the name of the newly appointed United States Commissioner of Education, who under the bylaws is a member, an ex-officio member of this body, you will find there are 27 of them. There are 54 states, territories, and districts, each of which is entitled to two representatives in this body, their state superintendent or commissioner of education, and their N. E. A. director. Adding those to 54 I make it 155 ex-officio delegates in the Representative Assembly as at present constituted. If the bylaws are adopted, there will be retained in this body 16 of that 155, eliminating from the body 139. So you see my figures do not correspond with *Mr. Saunders'*. I think *Mr. Saunders* and I will have to get together in a corner somewhere and see if we can reconcile them.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders: I beg pardon. Yours are lower than mine. I said 144. You said 139 would be eliminated.

Miss Frances Harden: Where did you get the 144 eliminated?

Mr. Saunders: I counted them on my list. I may have counted three too many.

President Rosier: Let us have your attention, please.

Miss Frances Harden: First, I want to say that you are here as elected delegates. You have been sent here by groups of teachers back home, either your state association or some local association. You are their elected representative. You are responsible to that group back home. When you go home you expect to report to that group, tell them what you did and why you did it. Every delegate here has back of him or her one hundred members of the National Education Association which you represent. Every time you cast a vote in this organization, you are not casting a vote for yourself alone. You are casting a vote for one hundred people at home. You are thinking of those people at home. "Shall I vote 'aye' on this? Is that what my people at home want? Shall I vote 'no' on it? Is that what they would expect of me?" You argue that matter, not in the light of your own ideas or your own thoughts, but in the light of what the people who sent you want you to do. You are responsible to those people.

An ex-officio delegate in a representative body like this is not sent by any group, is not responsible to any group, does not have to consider the question as to what the people back home will think. When the question of voting on a proposition comes up, it is only what he or she may think individually, not as a representative of the group. As I said before, you are representatives of one hundred teachers in your home states. Your vote is a vote for one hundred people. An ex-officio vote is a vote

for one person. Therefore, an ex-officio's voting power is one hundred times the voting power of an elected delegate. (She continued in careful analysis of the points involved, answering a number of questions.)

President Rosier: The president recognizes *Mr. Holmes* of New York.

Mr. W. H. Holmes (New York): (After arguing for the amendment): I move that these two amendments be laid on the table for one year and that a committee of three be appointed to draft a statement as to the purpose and effect of these two amendments, if they are adopted, and have it printed in the report that is sent to the Delegate Assembly next year.

Mrs. Lindlof (New York): Question.

Mr. George W. Wannamaker (Georgia): Second the motion.

President Rosier: It has been moved and seconded that the consideration of these amendments be laid on the table or deferred for one year and that a committee of three be appointed to make a report to the Delegate Assembly as to the effect of the amendment.

Mrs. Lindlof: A question of information. Mr. Chairman, I don't know that I understand the motion properly.

President Rosier: I will explain to you that the parliamentary rules that this question is debatable.

Voices: Oh, no! No!

Mr. Saunders (Parliamentarian): Beg pardon, oh yes, it is. The authority of the Delegate Assembly is *Robert's Rules of Order*, and *Robert's Rules of Order* says, "A motion to lay on the table is debatable." So, therefore, since *Robert's Rules of Order* is the adopted procedure authority of the convention I rule that the motion is debatable.

Mrs. Lindlof: I am exceedingly sorry that the motion just made should have been made by *Dr. Holmes*. (She continued in an argument for the amendment.)

Mr. Saunders: The parliamentarian is glad the last speaker had an opportunity to make a speech but he regrets he was looking at the wrong number in the chart when he stated that the motion was debatable. I am in error—I apologize to the Assembly. The motion is not debatable.

President Rosier: The question is on the adoption of *Mr. Holmes's* proposal to lay this matter on the table for one year.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, a question of information. Will the chairman be kind enough to tell the assembled multitude who was the eloquent lady who spoke last and where is she from?

President Rosier: The last speaker was *Mrs. Lindlof*, president of the kindergarten Teachers Association of New York City.

Mrs. Lindlof: May I correct the president? My name is *Mrs. Johanna Lindlof*, president of the Kindergarten Sixteenth Association, of New York City, an Association of 8000 classroom teachers.

President Rosier: The question is on the adoption of the motion made by *Mr. Holmes* of New York to lay this matter on the table for one year.

(The motion was thereupon put to a viva voce vote.)

Mr. George W. Wannamaker (Georgia): A division.

President Rosier: A division is called for. I will appoint *Mr. Cloud* and *Mr. Wannamaker* to act as tellers.

(The president thereupon put the motion and requested all those who were opposed to the motion to stand. Those opposed arose and the tellers counted them. The president thereupon called for all those in favor of the motion to stand and it was so obvious that those opposed had the greater majority that the tellers did not count the votes.)

President Rosier: The tellers rule a count is unnecessary and the motion is defeated.

Now the question is on the original motion to adopt the amendments. May I explain that under the charter and the bylaws amendments must have a two-thirds vote cast.

Miss Sara H. Fahey (New York): Mr. Chairman, since we are all looking for light on this motion, and the effect it will have on the National Education Association, I hope you will not be too critical about the information that I like to give you because after all we are seeking for truth, and one is seeking for democracy in our organization and we are not anxious to rule out for trivial reasons under some pretext of parliamentary usage the real truth that should be brought before the organization.

After presenting further argument she closed as follows: Today it is dangerous for the National Education Association to be reactionary because there are groups everywhere organizing themselves and really forgetting that we are here wanting to indicate to other groups that they will never get the objectives of teachers and the objectives of progressive superintendents unless they organize branches different from ours because we insist on having this great body that can throw a close question one way or another instead of being responsible to the people who send us.

President Rosier: The chairman recognizes *Mr. Wannamaker*.

Mr. George W. Wannamaker (Georgia): I simply want to bring up one particular question. There isn't any one in the National Education Association who believes in democracy any more than your speaker at this time. I ask the question for the clearing of this particular point, should this particular amendment be made, will it be in any wise in conflict with the charter of the great organization and thereby be thrown out. I personally am tremendously in favor of the spirit of not having ex-officio delegates in anything, but I am appalled, my friends, at what might possibly be hasty action to have an amendment passed here which might be in conflict with our charter, which was granted by Congress and which would, therefore, have to stand. It can be amended by Congress as it was granted by Congress. And it was for that reason and for no other reason I speak to you, not as an ex-officio delegate but a duly accredited delegate from my state. I ask for a ruling from the parliamentarian on the point as to how this will be construed, if the amendment as presented here is passed. If it excludes the ex-officio delegates and people who haven't the backing back in their home states, I am for it; but if it comes in here and can't be properly dovetailed into our charter, I am against it.

President Rosier: I have already talked to the parliamentarian about the legality of this amendment and he has ruled with me that the amendments are legal under the charter.

Miss Eula B. Hunter (Texas): Members of the Delegate Assembly, I wish to speak to you on just one point raised by the former speaker in referring to this as hasty action. I have been attending the meetings of the National Education Association for many years, and in practically every business session for the past ten years this question has come up and the discussions have followed much the same lines which they have followed this morning. We people of the United States have been studying this question for many years and we are not calling this hasty action when we say we are ready to vote on it now.

President Rosier: The chair recognizes *Mr. Cloud* of California.

(*Mr. Cloud* spoke against the amendment.)

President Rosier: I recognize *Mr. Gosling*.

Mr. Thomas W. Gosling (Ohio): I cannot speak to you today as a classroom teacher. I am a superintendent of schools but I have had twenty-one years' experience as a classroom teacher and I think I know somewhat of the views of the classroom teachers and the motives which prompt them to make this motion at this time. Incidentally I ought to say I am sitting in this convention today, not as an ex-officio member at all. I happen to be on the Executive Committee but under the terms of our bylaws I am not a member ex-officio. I am here as an elected delegate of the Northeastern Ohio Teachers Association.

I wish to support the amendment for the reason that, in my judgment, we are entering upon a period when a thoro enunciation of democratic principles in every department alike will have to be made. I know of no better place and no better

organization to give a pronouncement in favor of a thoroly democratic principle than this place, and this organization. (After further argument.) So I think that this whole body should be an elected body. I say I speak as a superintendent and perhaps I might be one of those persons who will be decapitated for taking this position, but I believe what I say and I will take the consequences.

Mr. George W. Wannamaker (Georgia): Mr. Chairman.

President Rosier: I recognize *Miss Lucy Mason Holt*. She has the floor.

Lucy Mason Holt (Virginia): (After a most interesting argument): We do not feel, being born of Jefferson, that those who come of the big community ought to forget us who are working in the little communities. We feel that we need for a time at least to send to you the best we have, which we give you for service, but we do not want to have to cut down on those we are bringing up for the first time. This Association needs new blood always and it is a hard thing to go to one we have selected and then say, "You cannot go because we feel this other person is needed but his privilege has been taken from him." That is the way it looks to me.

Mr. W. D. Blaine (Colorado): Just a minute, I wish to speak a word for the state superintendents of public instruction who represent countless thousands.

President Rosier: Will you come up here and speak? You know when somebody wants to speak for state superintendents in these days I like to give them a chance.

Mr. Blaine: We have literally thousands of teachers who are not represented here at all. The large cities gather together their one hundred and send their delegates. It seems to me you are cutting out representation from your rural districts when you will not let one from each state represent the rural schools, the countless numbers from over your state, and I speak for the rural sections and those who belong to the N. E. A. who cannot get the group of one hundred, which is mighty small. We have sent to you our chosen people when we sent you our state superintendents of public instruction. And we do not feel it is right to take away from them the right to vote in this large assembly, here where you have ten or twenty times their number where they represent more people who are not with those groups of one hundred than do those who are delegates.

Mr. Robert C. Keenan (Illinois): Perhaps I miss the point. *Mr. Blaine* spoke about the rural teachers not being represented. If the rural teachers, it seems to me, are members of this organization they may elect a delegate for each one hundred such members. I would like to point out to you another fact. I know of no government under a democracy in which people continue to legislate because they are ex-officios. We do not have our ex-presidents sitting in Congress. We don't have our ex-governors sitting in our state legislatures. We do not have our ex-mayors sitting in our city councils,—and for that, frequently, we can thank God! It is true if a man has served his country well or his people well, or his teachers well, he deserves to be returned to that group where he can do them the most good and unquestionably he will be returned if he is worth his salt. Let me point out to you that the fact that a man has once been elected to an office is no guarantee that that man may remain true to the interests that elected him. We have too many instances to the contrary. When I say this I do not reflect in any way upon any ex-officio member of this organization because I know nothing about any of them.

(After presenting arguments for the amendment he closed as follows:) It is quite common for ex-presidents, ex-governors, ex-judges of supreme courts as soon as they are out of office to be seized by large corporations and large interests to represent them because of the influence they have gained in their official positions. I don't know whether that can happen here but I think there is danger of it. I see no reason why any man should not be returned.

President Rosier: *Mr. Saunders*.

(*Mr. Saunders* then followed with arguments against the amendment.)

President Rosier: Is it the desire of the Assembly to continue this discussion?

Voices: No! No! Question! Question!

Mr. Charles Carroll (Rhode Island): I ask for roll call by states on the question.

Mr. George W. Wannamaker (Georgia): Second the motion.

(The motion was put and carried.)

President Rosier: The secretary will call the roll and delegates only are permitted to vote. We have a delegation or two here that must leave in a few minutes to catch a train. Will there be any objection in the Assembly if those delegations are permitted to report their vote now?

Voices: No! No!

President Rosier: All right, the report may be recorded with the secretary. Let there be no misunderstanding, you are voting on the adoption of the amendment, which has been under discussion.

The secretary thereupon called the roll of states and the following vote was recorded:

Vote by States:

<i>State</i>	<i>For</i>	<i>Against</i>
Alabama	0	4
Alaska	0	1
Arizona	0	16
Arkansas	1	1
California	27	39
Colorado	0	37
Connecticut	10	0
Delaware	2	2
District of Columbia	1	6
Florida	2	9
Georgia	0	4

President Rosier: The question has been raised about the voting of those who are not present. The chairman rules only those delegates who are present can vote.

Secretary Crabtree continued the call of the states and recorded the vote further as follows:

<i>State</i>	<i>For</i>	<i>Against</i>
Hawaii	9	15
Idaho	0	5
Illinois	70	19
Indiana	26	0
Iowa	5	20
Kansas	0	12
Kentucky	0	2
Louisiana	4	0
Maine	0	10
Maryland	0	0
Massachusetts	3	13
Michigan	11	0
Minnesota	21	4
Mississippi	0	1
Missouri	18	4
Montana	0	3
Nebraska	2	17
Nevada	0	4
New Hampshire	0	2
New Jersey	5	15
New Mexico	0	8
New York	23	7
North Carolina	0	1

<i>State</i>	<i>For</i>	<i>Against</i>
North Dakota	0	1
Ohio	61	0
Oklahoma	9	1
Oregon	11	6
Pennsylvania	60	10
Rhode Island	0	5
South Carolina	0	0
South Dakota	0	0
Tennessee	2	8
Texas	17	4
Utah	4	8
Vermont	0	4
Virginia	0	24
Washington	24	3
West Virginia	0	6
Wisconsin	19	7
Wyoming	6	0

Secretary Crabtree: The vote by states is 447 for, 368 against.

President Rosier: The amendments not having received a two-thirds vote are lost.

The next is the report of the Committee on Resolutions. I want to say so far as the chairman or president is concerned he is at your service. We are having a great time. Now if there are any real issues in the resolutions I hope you will face them but I do plead on behalf of the Delegate Assembly that there be no attempts to waste time in the consideration of the resolutions.

Mr. Donald DuShane (Indiana): The Resolutions Committee, composed of one member elected by each delegation, has been considering resolutions during the past year. A meeting of the Committee was held in Minneapolis. A questionnaire was sent in by every Committee member with many suggestions. It is our feeling and the feeling of the Committee this year we represent a cross-section of the profession and of the country. We have deliberated after coming here for many, many hours, and we present our report to you not as the report of the chairman but as a report of the whole Committee.

I assume each of you has a printed copy of the proposed resolutions at hand. However, so that you may get fully in hand what is in the proposed resolutions, I suggest you follow me in reading them.

Mr. Charles Carroll: Mr. President, I move the reading be dispensed with.

(Motion seconded, question called for, motion put and carried.)

Mr. Carroll: I move the adoption of the resolutions.

(The motion being seconded, the question was called for, motion put and carried.)

President Rosier: At this time I recognize *Mr. Kelley* of Pennsylvania.

Mr. J. Herbert Kelley (Pennsylvania): At the Atlantic City convention last year you created the office of honorary president and elected two members to that position, *Dr. John Dewey* and *Dr. Albert Edward Winship*. The death of *Dr. Winship* has created a vacancy. I have the honor this morning to nominate for your consideration one of the outstanding women in education in America to fill this vacancy as honorary president. This woman could have been regularly elected as president many times, almost any time, but she always felt that she had other duties that would make it impossible for her to function. So at this time I am pleased to nominate for your consideration that outstanding woman in education, *Dr. Susan M. Dorsey* of Los Angeles.

President Rosier: I recognize *Mr. Givens* of California.

Mr. Willard E. Givens (California): As president of the California Teachers Association, it gives me great honor to second this nomination. *Dr. Dorsey* has been one of our great superintendents and great leaders of teachers, a great understander

of children, one of the outstanding educators of the country, one of the great women of the country. It is indeed a pleasure for the California delegation to second this nomination.

Mr. Kelley: I move that this vacancy be filled by vote by acclamation.

(The motion being seconded, question called for, the motion was carried and *Dr. Susan M. Dorsey* declared elected honorary president by acclamation.)

President Rosier: I think the Representative Assembly and the educational profession of this country has maintained its high standards in this recognition.

May I call attention of the new officers of the Board of Directors to the fact that this afternoon at 2 o'clock, in the West Ballroom, there will be a meeting of the new Board of Directors and immediately following that a meeting of the new Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees.

We now come to the report of the Elections Committee. *Mr. Thalman* of Illinois.

Mr. Thalman (Illinois): First I want to pay my respects to the members of the Committee other than the chairman for their untiring efforts in doing the work that was set out for them. We began yesterday morning at 8 o'clock and worked untiringly until 11:15 last night. I feel that they have done a remarkably good job. I want to pay my respects to *Mr. E. M. Carter* of Missouri and to *Mr. John Rowe* of Illinois, who volunteered their assistance to make it possible for us to get to bed sometime before the wee small hours.

There were 1445 delegates in this Assembly. It will be pleasing to you to know that more than 1200 of them exercised their right of franchise. I think this is a remarkable tribute to their intelligence. That is what we are trying to teach our young children all over the United States—we are setting the example for them.

I also want to congratulate all candidates—unfortunately not all can be elected who are nominated, but every one received a remarkably fine vote, especially was that true of the vicepresidents. Nobody knew, not even the tellers, until the votes were tabulated and counted just who were elected. I am pleased to say that for our treasurer for next year we have *Dr. Henry Lester Smith*. The state directors also received a very handsome vote. Not any one of them had any opposition.

Now then we come to the beauty contest, so naively put here Tuesday morning by the delegate from New Jersey, I believe. The first place goes to *F. F. Martin* of California; second place to *Noah M. Mason* of Illinois. May I pause here to say that when *Noah M. Mason* was suggested by the delegates from the state of Illinois they did so because of this industry and intelligence and not because of his beauty. The others are as follows: Third place—*O. C. Pratt*, Washington; fourth place—*Ernest W. Butterfield*, Connecticut; fifth place—*A. F. Harman*, Alabama; sixth place—*Henry S. Gerling*, Missouri; seventh place—the real beauty of the group, *Mattie S. Doremus*, New Jersey; eighth place—*S. M. Stouffer*, Delaware; ninth place—*Henry W. Stilwell*, Texas; tenth place—*Caroline S. Woodruff*, Vermont; eleventh place—*Selden M. Ely*, Washington, D. C.

And the election for presidency—there were a few scattering votes other than for the two candidates who had been nominated from the floor. The honor goes to *Miss Jessie Gray* of Pennsylvania.

President Rosier: The question is on the adoption of the report of the Committee and I recognize *Miss Anna Laura Force* of Colorado.

Miss Anna Laura Force (Colorado): Mr. President, it gives me great pleasure at this time to make for Colorado the election of *Miss Gray* unanimous, and for our classroom teacher.

(The motion being seconded, question called for, motion was put and carried and *Miss Jessie Gray* declared elected unanimously.)

President Rosier: May I just take two or three minutes to sing my little swan song? I have remarked before this week, I came into this position in trying times. We have sailed our ship thru narrow channels and we have got out at times on stormy seas. We have been threatened in all sorts of ways. We had forebodings about this convention. I have tried to carry on in a safe, sane way. I felt that this was no year for

any wild experiments. My first thought was to give attention to the development of our organization and to bring about a greater spirit of cooperation between the National Association and state associations and local associations; to secure a greater spirit of cooperation and interest among the officers of the Association and the Board of Directors. I have particularly tried to emphasize this year the development of departments of the Association and to me the most pleasing accomplishment of the year is the success which has attended the emphasis placed upon the departments.

From all sources I learned that the departments of this Association, meeting in sections this week, have had the finest programs and the best attendance they have ever had in their history, and I want to thank the chairmen of the departments the past year for the cooperation which they gave to us.

Now, as I said earlier this morning, we had not only professional difficulties and difficulties concerning strategy and plans and all that, but we had financial difficulties and in the face of all these difficulties, we have come thru the year with our finances in solid and substantial shape.

The Metropolitan National Bank in Washington has indicated, after looking over the financial statements of the National Education Association, that they stand ready to make us any loans that are needed for carrying on the operation of our Association. I think that is the best recommendation I can give to you.

As I hand over this organization to my successor, I do it with a considerable feeling of pleasure and pride, feeling that thru all these difficulties I have managed to bring the Association to the conclusion of this great convention. I do not reflect in any way upon previous conventions of the National Education Association when I say that taking it all around, in spirit and in interest and in the quality and character of the programs, we have had no convention in the history of the Association that surpasses the one we are concluding here at this hour.

I hope the delegates in this Assembly will go back to their homes with a new outlook, with a new spirit; that you will go back resolved you are going to carry on; that you will feel that there is a better day just ahead. I really think that here in Chicago this week we have inaugurated a new era in educational affairs; that we have turned the corner and the obligation rests upon the leadership in the National Education Association to carry on in every part of this country in this new period of development, reorganization and the development of which we are now entering upon.

I want to thank all those on the program, all the chairmen of departments, the Board of Directors and the local committees, *Superintendent Bogan*, and all his committees. I want to thank all for the fine spirit of loyal cooperation which has been given to me to bring this hectic year to a successful close. And it is with a great deal of pleasure and joy that I now present to you your new president, *Miss Jessie Gray* of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Miss Jessie Gray: (Pennsylvania) (The Assembly of Delegates arose to their feet with loud applause) I want to thank, and my state wishes me to thank, the Delegates of Colorado for their gracious sportsmanship in making the election of a classroom teacher to the presidency of the N. E. A. a unanimous thing. It was a gracious act. It was a beautiful gesture and we are thankful.

My state is the center of my heart but my state is a part of the great nation, and my nation is the heart of my heart. I think of this great Association, as you come from every corner of this nation and every island and every dependency of this nation, I think of it as a great treasure chest and the amount of that treasure is not what we take out of the chest for ourselves, but what we put into that chest as riches to spend for others.

You have put in loyalty, you have put in cooperation, you have put in a fine zeal and industry; you have worked where others have slept that education for the children of this nation may go on, as it will go on because you are back of education. You are the education of the future of this nation and I pledge to you, with every ounce of strength that I have—and it is so small—but with the use of all the

cooperation in that chest, I am not afraid. I may go down defeated but never go down dishonored. I will trust in your honor and loyalty. I pledge you all I have. Thank you very much.

(*Mr. J. Herbert Kelley*, state director of Pennsylvania, came to the platform with a beautiful bouquet of flowers for *Miss Gray*.)

President Gray: From my own state. Thank you, Pennsylvania.

Delegate from Hawaii: In behalf of the Hawaiian delegation may I present you this lei which is the symbol of love and friendship. (Hanging a beautiful lei around *Miss Gray's* neck.) Love and friendship, words to break any heart with happiness—just remember.

President Rosier: There being no further business before this Representative Assembly, I declare—

Mrs. Myrtle Hooper Dahl (Minnesota): May I submit these amendments to be presented at the meeting next year?

President Rosier: I was about to declare there was no further business but I was mistaken. The secretary will read them.

Secretary Crabtree: The proposed amendments to the bylaws of the National Education Association.

Amend Article I by amending Section 2 as follows:

"The representative assembly shall be composed of the president, the twelve vice-presidents, the secretary and treasurer of the National Education Association, of the United States, the United States Commissioner of Education, and delegates elected from the various affiliated state and local associations, as provided by the bylaws."

Amend Article II, Section 9 to read:

"The president, the twelve vicepresidents, the secretary and treasurer of the National Education Association, and the United States Commissioner of Education shall be ex-officio delegates to the representative assembly."

This is to be laid over for action next year.

President Rosier: These proposed amendments will be printed in the *Journal* so that all members may be advised. Is there any other business?

Miss Frances Harden (Illinois): Mr. President, may I just make a request? This isn't a motion or anything.

Inasmuch as at this Representative Assembly, it is the custom to call upon the body to vote on reports as printed, I would like to request that a sufficient number of copies of these reports be made available so that every delegate will have a copy. Now I happen to know there are many delegates here—I am one of them—I happened to register a little late, and I did not receive those reports. I was called upon to vote for reports I had never seen and my request is a sufficient supply be furnished that every delegate can be supplied with reports, if we are going to be called upon to vote upon a printed report.

President Rosier: I declare the seventy-first annual convention of the National Education Association adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Chicago, Illinois

Saturday Morning, July 1, 1933

The meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Education Association, as scheduled by the program, convened at 9 a. m. in the West Ballroom, Stevens Hotel. The meeting was called to order by *President Rosier*.

The president asked the secretary to call the roll. *Secretary Crabtree* thereupon called the roll, and commented upon the splendid attendance at the opening session of the Board. The roll call showed the following delegates present:

Directors Ex Officio: *Joseph Rosier*, president; *Henry Lester Smith*, treasurer; *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, Board of Trustees; *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary; and *Florence Hale*, vicepresident.

State Directors: Alabama—*J. D. Williams*, Alaska—*A. E. Karnes*, Arizona—*J. O. Mullen*, Arkansas—*C. M. Hirst*, California—*F. F. Martin*, Colorado—*W. B. Mooney*, Connecticut—*Helen T. Collins*, Delaware—*H. V. Holloway*, District of Columbia—*Edith L. Grosvenor*, Florida—*James S. Rickards*, Georgia—*J. O. Martin*, Hawaii—*T. J. Martin*, Idaho—*Raymond H. Snyder*, Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg*, Indiana—*Charles O. Williams*, Iowa—*Mary A. Lord*, Kansas—*M. E. Pearson*, Kentucky—*R. E. Williams*, Louisiana—*P. H. Griffith*, Maine—*William B. Jack*, Maryland—*William Burdick*, Massachusetts—*Annie C. Woodward*, Minnesota—*Harry L. Wahlstrand*, Mississippi—*H. V. Cooper*, Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker*, Montana—*D. S. Williams*, Nebraska—*Dwight E. Porter*, Nevada—*Alice Maxwell*, New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan*, New Jersey—*R. B. Gurley*, New Mexico—*Vernon O. Tolle*, New York—*Frederick Houk Law*, North Carolina—*T. W. Andrews*, Oklahoma—*M. E. Hurst*, Oregon—*C. A. Rice*, Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley*, Rhode Island—*Charles Carroll*, South Carolina—*A. C. Flora*, Tennessee—*Harry H. Clark*, Utah—*Arch M. Thurman*, Vermont—*Caroline S. Woodruff*, Virginia—*Edith B. Joynes*, Washington—*Orville C. Pratt*, Wisconsin—*Blanche M. McCarthy*, Wyoming—*H. H. Moyer*.

Life Directors: *Uel W. Lamkin* and *Mary McSkimmon*.

Mr. A. L. Whittenberg (Illinois): I move that the names of the persons present as substitutes for the regularly appointed members of the Board of Directors, be elected at this time to serve as state director from their respective states. (The motion was seconded by *Miss McCarthy* of Wisconsin. It was carried by a unanimous vote. Messrs. *J. O. Martin*, *T. J. Martin*, *Vernon O. Tolle*, *R. B. Gurley* and *H. H. Moyer* were thereby declared duly elected directors from their respective states.)

President Rosier: About the time of the Minneapolis convention—and if any of you were away from home and got stranded on the way you will remember something about it—we had a general bank moratorium and unless you had cash money with you, you had some difficulty in getting home from Minneapolis. I heard of a number of people who were stranded here in Chicago for a day or two. (He continued to explain the financial difficulties, closing as follows):

Well, things brightened up a little toward the close of the year and the Budget Committee had a meeting and had a little better spirit and were encouraged, so I sent out a second letter and said under no circumstances must a director stay away from the meeting on account of expense; that in some way or other the N. E. A. would manage to take care of the expenses. And I was very glad to make that statement because I believe so strongly in keeping the directors in touch with this organization.

So I think that with the more favorable developments in the last month or two we can take care of these expenses, and of course you have the privilege—I think I stated

you could vote these expenses in spite of anything the president might say—but the president is going to recommend that these expenses be taken care of and with the suggestion that you make them just as reasonable as you can. But, as I said before, we do not want any director to be embarrassed on account of these expenses. We want you here. We were anxious to have you here and I am sure that the Budget Committee and the officers can take care of the necessary expenses. So at this time we are going to distribute the usual expense blanks so that you may fill them out as usual.

(The president then called on *Mr. Whittenberg* for the report of the Budget Committee.)

Mr. Whittenberg: While these reports are being distributed may I bring to you a word of greeting and welcome to Chicago? You have read and heard much about Chicago within recent months. No doubt some of you wondered whether it was wise for this convention to assemble in this city at this time. The conditions certainly justify your consideration of that question. I am indeed very happy that you have decided to come and that you are here. Thruout the week you will come to know Chicago people. I sincerely hope that you will recognize the presence of great forces working for the ultimate good of this city. I sincerely hope that within the next week you will come to know that our situation here in Illinois and in Chicago is not without hope. You may find it necessary to exercise some patience with us. We may become a bit extravagant. That, however, is perfectly natural. Whatever may be the faults of our own people, city, or state we always find ourselves eager in their defense. This is pardonable. Just now I happen to think of one of Cowper's poems, *The Task*. You will recall that he takes to task the British crown, British government, British society; that he even invades the sacred precincts of the Anglican church and pays his respects to a certain type of bishop, but finally redeems himself in these splendid lines:

“England, with all thy faults, I love thee still—
My country! and, while yet a nook is left,
Where English minds and manners may be found,
Shall be constrain'd to love thee. Tho thy clime
Be fickle, and thy year most part deform'd
With dripping rains, or wither'd by a frost,
I would not yet exchange thy sullen skies,
And fields without a flow'r, for warmer France.”

This is the sentiment of Illinois and with that sentiment we welcome the Board of Directors to Chicago.

You now have the preliminary report of the Budget Committee. You will recall that at Atlantic City last summer one of your members requested that the Budget Committee should mail out to each member of the Board of Directors a copy of the preliminary report of the Committee immediately following its May meeting in Washington. This request was complied with in May. Early in that month your Budget Committee spent two days in *Mr. Crabtree's* office. We made what we believed to be a thoro study of the affairs of the Association as revealed by the records in Washington.

Your Committee met Thursday morning of this week in Chicago. We have been seriously engaged in the formation of your budget thruout Thursday, Friday, and today. The report you have is the result of our study. I shall make no extended discussion of this report unless inquiries from you require it.

Permit me to say to you that *Mr. Crabtree* and the entire official staff have certainly been keenly aware of the financial difficulties confronting the Association. Their determination thruout the past twelve months to keep expenditures within available revenue without seriously crippling the work of the Association has led them into acts of generosity which merit the highest commendation of every member of the Association. Their voluntary donation of a portion of their salary

as indicated in this report is additional evidence of their fidelity and will certainly be most gratifying to you. Your officials at Washington have given to themselves a straight 10 percent reduction in salary and have made certain donations that are exceedingly generous. At the same time they have done a magnificent year's work.

(*Mr. Whittenberg* then made a brief explanation of certain items in the preliminary report answering numerous questions from board members.)

(At this point *Miss Hale*, vicepresident, made a motion that the Board of Directors express appreciation and thanks to the headquarters staff at Washington.)

Miss Florence Hale: I endorse everything that has been said. I know how great the sacrifice has been, much greater than indicated in this talk in many instances. If that is agreeable, I should like to move a very cordial and appreciative note be sent to the staff in Washington to show our appreciation of their loyalty and fine spirit, the ungrudging spirit with which they have helped us to meet this emergency. (The motion was seconded by *Mrs. Joynes* of Virginia.)

Mr. F. F. Martin (California): May I amend it, Mr. President, by saying that this Board of Directors would like this to be brought to the Delegate Assembly and some action be taken there and let them know, and it is open for further action, that the whole N. E. A. should understand and express itself. I think it will unanimously.

Mr. Charles Carroll (Rhode Island): Mr. President, I might emphasize the fact, because it is a fact after all which counts, the actual savings produced by the staff during this past year amounts to \$93,000, or a little over 16 percent of the amount appropriated last year, and that saving is due to the way in which the people down there worked extra time, took furloughs, accepted a reduction in salaries, and saved in every possible way in order to make it possible to get thru on the income. It is a saving of \$93,000, almost \$100,000, $16\frac{2}{3}$ percent of the budget.

Mr. W. B. Mooney (Colorado): Mr. Chairman, I think we all ought to keep this in mind also, and while it was not resolved by the Budget Committee, all appropriations recommended here were made with the thought that should these times continue and we should suffer further deductions than those we anticipate, the staff stands ready to do the same thing again, so that we may anticipate coming here with a balanced budget next time.

(The motion was then put and carried, the president stating that he would direct the secretary to convey this note of appreciation to the staff.)

President Rosier: We should now have a motion to appropriate funds for the expenses of directors and delegates.

Mr. Mooney: I move that the item of \$8000, appropriated to cover the expenses of members of the Board of Directors, be approved.

(The motion being duly seconded, the question called for, the motion was put and unanimously carried.)

The president then spoke at large concerning the work of the officers for the year. He called attention to the way in which education is handicapped in every state and the efforts being made to counteract vicious movements. He spoke of the Chicago situation in particular, and complimented the Chicago superintendent, principals, and teachers for their valiant stand. He explained in detail his own policy in meeting criticism and in handling the difficult situations with which he was confronted. He then called on *Mr. Whittenberg* to propose a new department for the Association, one for which application had been made earlier.

Mr. Whittenberg: Mr. President, it may add a little encouragement to you that in these days of depression, when "fads and fancies" are supposed to be repressed or eliminated, that we come before this body today to propose a Department of Art. This new department, if it is granted by the Association, will probably be the twenty-third department of the N. E. A. I know little of art and I shall make no effort to discuss it, but introduce this matter because the supervisor of art in the city schools of Chicago has taken the initiative in the organization of this new department. *Miss Elizabeth Wells Robertson*, district supervisor of art here in Chicago

public schools, will now present to you the proposition of creating this new Department and I will say before she comes to the floor that 250 petitions are required—she offers 1235, and they represent every big city in this country. *Miss Elizabeth Wells Robertson*, will you please come forward?

Miss Elizabeth Wells Robertson (Illinois): I have here the names of 1284—we have a few more since *Mr. Whittenberg* reported this—names of teachers who are working in art. We feel that this is a very critical time for our subject and we feel that we began our work at a most opportune moment. Three years ago Dr. Sutton at Columbus, after his election, asked me if I would be chairman of the art group meeting in Los Angeles because he wanted art in the Los Angeles meeting. We had three very fine meetings in Los Angeles, carrying out his program in every way. At Los Angeles they elected me chairman for the meeting in Atlantic City and there we had two fine meetings, most enthusiastic, and there again they asked me to nourish this infant and carry it on thru another year, which I was extremely glad to do. And here in Chicago we are asking you to consider this as a real department. We have a great deal of interest in it and we want to push it hard. We want it to mean, too, a great deal to you, and we need you. And so, Mr. Chairman, I submit this petition to form an Art Department in the National Education Association.

Mr. Uel W. Lamkin (Missouri): Mr. Chairman, I move we recommend to the Representative Assembly that this department be created.

Mrs. Edith B. Joynes (Virginia): Second the motion.

(There being no discussion, the question was called for, motion put, and carried.)

President Rosier: Now there is a resolution here presented to us from the National Council of Education, I believe, that *Mr. Crabtree* will present to us.

Secretary Crabtree: This is a resolution which was adopted last year but which did not reach the secretary until after our last meeting of last year. We have not taken it up formally with the Board of Directors because it seemed to us that we are really carrying out what this resolution recommended. But this is the resolution which was recommended to the National Education Association. It was the eleventh resolution in their list:

Be It Resolved, That the National Education Association should create a commission, first, to reformulate the social objectives of educational associations; second, to propose a plan for the more effective integration of the National Education Association with state associations and other general associations; and, third, to formulate a program of action in the period of reconstruction that will follow the depression.

It seems to me that we have already put this resolution into effect in some other ways. I see no reason why we could not adopt the resolution, however, as presented by the Council.

(A motion was so made and duly seconded.)

Mr. Thomas J. Walker (Missouri): May I ask if the adoption of this resolution would not obligate us to form a commission?

Secretary Crabtree: We already have formed a commission which carries out one phase of it and the other phase of it *Dr. Kelly's* committee is carrying out.

Mr. Walker: I should think in view of that it would be unnecessary to form another commission. This evidently asks us to form another commission.

Secretary Crabtree: I don't think we ought to form another commission.

President Rosier: Is there any other discussion of this? Now you understand this comes from the Council and in the meantime, well, beginning with this time, we have had a Committee on Social Economic Objectives which is making a careful study. This year that committee has functioned in a very fine way and will have a fine

report here. Then in the meantime during this year we have organized a Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education which deals with the other phase there.

Mr. Carroll (Rhode Island): Mr. President, I move it be referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. Walker: Is a motion in order?

President Rosier: You can make a motion—is there a parliamentarian here?—we will accept it. We have got a motion and a second to adopt this resolution.

Mr. Walker: Is a motion to substitute in order?

President Rosier: Yes.

Mr. Walker: I move a substitute motion to the effect that the officers and the Council be informed that we have carried out the spirit of their resolution which was offered a year ago but too late to be presented, and that having that on file, that we feel that in these two committees already at work we have carried out the spirit of their resolution.

(The substitute motion was thereupon put and carried.)

President Rosier: Are there any other matters?

Secretary Crabtree: Nothing very special.

Mr. Edgar G. Doudna (Wisconsin): I might say that a few years ago I was elected a member of the Board of Trustees and sat for two years at the foot of the Board of Trustees and I want to tell you for the record that you don't know how much you owe and how much the Association owes to the chairman of that Board, *Mr. Saunders*, who has worked night and day with fine, intelligent, and unusual integrity, and an industry which I can't imagine a man putting into a thing for which he gets no personal consideration, and I think we ought to express our appreciation of that sort of service. I can't tell you how much we owe.

President Rosier: Very glad to hear that. I might say in that connection we owe a great deal of the soundness of our financial situation to the indefatigable efforts of *Mr. Saunders*, who has wrestled with this thing almost night and day. Does anybody have anything to say before we adjourn for the good of the order?

Mr. Uel W. Lamkin (Missouri): Mr. President, I don't know how many ex-presidents may be here but if I understood *Miss Hale* correctly one of them would like to be here and can't. If we don't have the money to send *Mr. Sutton* a telegram, I would like to have *Mr. Smith* take it out of his allowance and send *Mr. Sutton* a telegram telling him we are sorry he is not here, or to anybody else who has been unable to be present. I don't know whether anybody else is sick or hurt.

Mr. Mooney: Mr. President, *Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford* was too ill to attend this meeting and I should like to include her name.

Miss Hale: *Mr. Crabtree* suggests in view of what has just been said by *Mr. Lamkin* about *Mr. Sutton*—I had a letter last night from *Mrs. Sutton* in which she asked me to give information to anyone interested. It was on the 31st of May that *Mr. Sutton* was returning from a lecture given at a negro college, and in haste to return for his own graduation exercises to be given in Atlanta, he met with this terrible accident just outside of Savannah. First it was thought there was only a broken collar bone and it would not be serious but he has now been in the hospital for four weeks and is at the present time in a brace and it takes several nurses even to turn him over in bed, absolutely helpless so far as moving is concerned. It is an injury to the third vertebra—I don't know enough about medicine to know what that is—but it is a very bad condition. One leg was very painful and at one time the vision of the right eye was hurt somewhat but they think that is going to clear up all right. *Mrs. Sutton* said in this letter they are very hopeful that the whole thing will clear up all right; that he is having the very best doctors and is very cheerful.

(The motion offered by *Mr. Lamkin* was thereupon put and unanimously carried.)

Mr. Robert C. Moore (Illinois): Several suggestions have been made in the discussion up to this time in regard to the rather peculiar conditions under which

the N. E. A. is meeting this year in Illinois and particularly in Chicago. As a representative of the Illinois State Teachers Association I just thought I ought to add a few words to tell you that that State Association, consisting of about 39,000 members at this time, of which about 8000 are here in the city of Chicago, wants you to know we appreciate most highly your convening here for this week's service to education, because we feel it will be particularly helpful to us here in Illinois and to those of the stricken city of Chicago. I think I agree with one of the speakers who said that Chicago is not the only city in the world which is in a serious condition with regard to school finances. I know of several others in Illinois, not so far away, but some of them in really much worse condition than Chicago. Chicago was referred to as the "Windy City." I hope you will have a cool wind for the next few days. (He continued his address speaking particularly of the Chicago crisis.)

President Rosier: I will entertain a motion now to adjourn until 2 oclock Tuesday.

It was moved by *Mr. Thomas J. Walker*, and duly seconded, that the meeting stand adjourned until 2 oclock Tuesday, July 4, 1933, which motion was put and carried and the session stood adjourned.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Tuesday Afternoon, July 4, 1933

The meeting was called to order at 2 p. m. by *Secretary Crabtree* in the West Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel.

Secretary Crabtree: *President Rosier* will be in within just a short time. He asked us to go ahead with the work and we will call on *Superintendent Cody* of Detroit for a few remarks at this time.

Mr. Frank Cody (Michigan): In conclusion I— This is not the time for invitations. This speech should be made on Friday but I am not going to talk until Friday. I just wish to extend to you a cordial invitation to hold your meeting next year at Detroit. It has been over thirty years since you have been in Detroit officially. If you will come to Detroit, the superintendent personally will be glad to receive you with open arms. I thank you.

President Rosier: (entered)—I beg pardon for being delayed. I got tied up. We have a man from West Virginia—West Virginia is in charge of everything this year—who is heading up a national organization of business colleges, that is meeting over here in another room and they are having a luncheon and they were very determined I should come over there and make a little speech, so I had to hold you up for just a few minutes while I talked to that group and that accounts for my delay. We will now be in order. *Mr. Strayer* has a matter to present to the Board of Directors.

Mr. George D. Strayer (New York): At a meeting of the Legislative Commission on Sunday afternoon their attention was called to a resolution which had been submitted to the Board of Directors and which, in the judgment of one member of the Legislative Commission, had not received full consideration by this body. I was instructed to appear before the body to read this resolution and to make such suggestions as seem valid. The resolution is as follows, presented from the National Council:

That the National Education Association should create a commission, first, to reformulate the social objectives of education associations; two, to propose a plan for more effective integration of the National Education Association with state associations and other general associations; and third, to formulate a program of action in the period of reconstruction that will follow the depression.

(After discussing the matter further he said:) I move then, Mr. President, that this body record itself as asking or proposing that the three chairmen concerned, with such membership from their Commissions as may be readily available in or near

Washington, consider jointly this resolution and make such proposals as in their judgment would further the cause that is represented.

Mr. Henry Lester Smith (Indiana): Second the motion.

President Rosier: You have heard the resolution and motion which is seconded. Now the matter is open for discussion. (*Mr. Lamkin, Mr. Strayer*, and others discussed the resolution.)

President Rosier: Anything further on this motion?

Mr. L. W. Rogers (Texas): Mr. Chairman, I would just like to ask a second reading of that resolution. I think I am inclined to be entirely in accord with it but I would just like to hear it stated again.

(The president thereupon re-read the resolution.)

President Rosier: The motion was made to adopt this resolution.

Now, the substance of *Mr. Strayer's* motion, as I understand, was to suggest or propose that the chairman of the Committee on Social and Economic Objectives and the chairman of the Legislative Commission, and the chairman of the Joint Commission on Emergency in Education should constitute a special committee organized to carry out the purposes of this resolution.

Mr. Strayer: That is the motion.

President Rosier: That is the motion you understand.

(*Mr. Whittenberg* pointed out that the resolution read was not in harmony with the motion that was made.)

Mr. Strayer: Mr. Chairman, as I understand my own motion, it was that we carry out the purpose of the resolution, rather than adopt it, and that that purpose be carried out in the manner I suggested in my motion.

Mr. James S. Rickards (Florida): A point of information, please. The certain phrasing in the second clause of that resolution that pertains to the integrating or closer relation of the work between the state associations and the National Education Association, I didn't get.

President Rosier: "To reformulate the social objectives of education associations"—that would seem to be both national and state. Are there any other remarks on this motion?

(There being no further discussion, the question was called for, the motion was put and carried.)

President Rosier: We will now have the roll call.

The secretary thereupon called the roll and the following were present:

Directors Ex Officio: *Joseph Rosier*, president; *Florence Hale*, first vicepresident; *Henry Lester Smith*, treasurer; *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, Board of Trustees; *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary.

Life Directors: *Uel W. Lamkin*, *Mary McSkimmon*, *E. Ruth Pyrtle*, *George D. Strayer*, *Robert C. Moore*.

State Directors: Alabama—*J. D. Williams*, Alaska—*A. E. Karnes*, Arizona—*J. O. Mullen*, Arkansas—*C. M. Hirst*, California—*Frederick F. Martin*, Colorado—*W. B. Mooney*, Connecticut—*Helen T. Collins*, Delaware—*H. V. Holloway*, District of Columbia—*Edith L. Grosvenor*, Florida—*James S. Rickards*, Georgia—*J. O. Martin*, Hawaii—*T. J. Martin*, Idaho—*Raymond H. Snyder*, Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg*, Indiana—*Charles O. Williams*, Iowa—*Mary A. Lord*, Kansas—*M. E. Pearson*, Kentucky—*R. E. Williams*, Louisiana—*P. H. Griffith*, Maine—*William B. Jack*, Maryland—*William Burdick*, Massachusetts—*Annie C. Woodward*, Michigan—*Webster H. Pearce*, Minnesota—*Harry L. Wahlstrand*, Mississippi—*H. V. Cooper*, Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker*, Montana—*V. S. Williams*, Nebraska—*Dwight E. Porter*, New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan*, New Jersey—*R. B. Gurley*, New Mexico—*Vernon O. Tolle*, New York—*Frederick Houk Law*, North Carolina—*T. W. Andrews*, North Dakota—*L. A. White*, Ohio—*R. E. Offenhauer*, Oklahoma—*M. E. Hurst*, Oregon—

C. A. Rice, Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley*, Rhode Island—*Charles Carroll*, South Carolina—*A. C. Flora*, South Dakota—*S. B. Nissen*, Tennessee—*Harry H. Clark*, Texas—*L. W. Rogers*, Utah—*Arch M. Thurman*, Vermont—*Caroline S. Woodruff*, Virginia—*Edith B. Joynes*, Wisconsin—*Blanche M. McCarthy*.

President Rosier: I will call for the report of the Board of Trustees next.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders (Virginia): It is hardly necessary for me to consume your time since you have so many matters to discuss this afternoon, by a reading of this report which is already printed and has been placed in your hands. There are one or two items in connection therewith, however, that it may be worthwhile for me to comment upon in order that you may have a fairly thoro understanding of the finances of the Association.

(*Mr. Saunders* continued, explaining the closing of the Commercial National Bank and the hardships involved therein and explaining how the Board of Trustees and Executive Committee handled matters to avoid serious difficulties. He then answered questions concerning the value of bonds and the condition of various accounts. The report of the Board of Trustees is printed in another part of this volume. He closed with the following statement): So that, take it all in all, our finances are in excellent shape and I want to commend to you, as I have done in the printed report here, the very fine assistance and the able services of our business manager, *Mr. Allan*, who has stood at my right hand thruout this and helped us to keep these finances in proper shape, together with the cooperation and support of our very wonderful secretary of this organization. He is so modest that he never lets his real virtues be known. You just have to discover them yourself. But those of us who work down there in the headquarters office really appreciate him more and more as the days go by. And with the assistance of these two able gentlemen we have kept our finances in the excellent shape which they have been in this year and are in now. I thank you.

President Rosier (After commenting favorably on the report of the Board of Trustees): The next will be a report of the treasurer.

Mr. Henry Lester Smith (Indiana) (After briefly presenting his report): Mr. President, I move the adoption of the treasurer's report.

(Motion seconded, put, and carried.)

President Rosier: The next will be the report of the Budget Committee. *Mr. L. W. Rogers*.

(*Mr. Rogers* explained that the committee had asked *Mr. Whittenberg* to present the report for them. *Mr. Whittenberg* was introduced and presented the report.)

Mr. A. L. Whittenberg (Illinois): The Board of Directors will recall that Saturday afternoon you had a temporary report. This is exactly the report which you received Saturday afternoon except that the printer has been at work with it and this is a galley proof with just a few changes that are something which the printer supplied.

For instance, the date July 7, then the language somewhere in this report after it is adopted by this Board of Directors would be inserted in this printed copy, "adopted by the Board of Directors July 7"—or whatever date it was—and outside of that this copy is exactly ready for the printer unless you do something to it. And the purpose of the Budget Committee Saturday afternoon in giving you the temporary report at that time exactly as it would come to you now in galley proof was that you might have an opportunity to look it over and I assume that every one of you has read that temporary report, and that perhaps it would not be out of place now to go down the first page and see what the suggestions of the Budget Committee really are.

(The items in the report were taken up one by one. Questions were asked and answered. The report had the careful consideration of all the members.)

A motion was made by *Mr. Law* of New York to increase the appropriation for the Department of Secondary Education to \$1500. After his explanation a motion was made to refer the matter to the Executive Committee with power to act but

with the understanding that it would be entirely satisfactory to the Board of Directors for such an increase to be made. Later, and after further discussion, a motion was substituted, seconded, and carried to appropriate \$1500 for this department.

After further discussion and after answering many questions, *Mr. Whittenberg* moved the adoption of the report with the corrections as had been made.

(The motion was seconded by *Mrs. Joynes* of Virginia. It was put and carried.)

Mr. F. F. Martin (California): Mr. President, may I bring several items of business before the Board of Directors at this time?

President Rosier: Yes, sir.

Mr. Martin: Just a few minutes ago, or before the meeting, *Mr. Frank Cody*, superintendent of schools of Detroit, issued an invitation for the coming year. Now as the groundwork for the thing I am asking that you consider and that we have a bit of information dispersed thru the Board of Directors, California is inviting the N. E. A. in 1935. In 1927 the N. E. A. met at Seattle, in 1931 at Los Angeles, and in 1935, the fourth year again, we would like for you to come to the Pacific Coast. (*Mr. Martin* continued his invitation for the Association to come to San Francisco in 1935.)

Mr. Saunders: Mr. President, *Mr. Lamkin* made reference in one of his speeches to the report from the National Council of Education, of which *Dr. Bagley* is president, and *Dr. Bagley* had to return to New York and so did the secretary of the National Council have to return to Washington on account of receiving a telegram that they were reorganizing the office down there and she was needed in Washington. So when *Miss Baylor* left or *Dr. Bagley* left rather, he placed in my hands this paper and asked me to see that it got before the Association. I have never been quite clear in my own mind as to how this paper should be presented to the Association, whether it should come to this Board of Directors or whether it should be presented to the General Assembly.

It is in the form of certain resolutions on social objectives, which were adopted by the Council at its meeting in Minneapolis and then a supplementary set of resolutions, which were adopted by the Council in its session here in Chicago, and if this is the proper place and the proper time to present this paper from the Council, I would like to present it here. If this isn't the proper place and time, then I would like to present it to the Representative Assembly, if that is the proper place for it, but being in the nature of a set of resolutions, since this body has a committee on resolutions, it did not seem to me it should go before the Representative Assembly.

(After prolonged discussion in which most of the members of the Board of Directors participated, *Mr. Saunders* was requested to read the resolutions of the Council. He read the same. The report of the Council is printed elsewhere in this volume. See National Council of Education minutes.)

A motion was then made to adopt the resolutions as read, which was seconded.

The question was discussed at some length, mainly on how the resolutions could be carried out. Again a majority of the members of the Board of Directors participated in the discussion. Finally the one who had made the motion and the one who had seconded it withdrew their motion and asked the chairman to appoint a committee to clear matters up and report the following day. The chairman appointed *Mr. Lamkin*, *Mr. Whittenberg*, *Mr. Mooney*, and *Mr. Smith*, and *Mr. Lamkin* was asked to serve as chairman of the committee. The secretary was asked to attend the meeting. Thereupon the meeting stood adjourned for a special meeting on July 5, 1933, at 2 oclock.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Wednesday Afternoon July 5, 1933

The special meeting of the Board of Directors was called to order by *President Rosier* in the West Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel at 2 p. m.

President Rosier: I now ask for the roll call.

Directors Ex Officio: *Joseph Rosier*, president; *Henry Lester Smith*, treasurer; *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, Board of Trustees; *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary.

Life Directors: *Uel W. Lamkin*, *Mary McSkimmon*, *Robert C. Moore*, *E. Ruth Pyrtle*.

State Directors: Alabama—*J. D. Williams*, Arizona—*J. O. Mullen*, California—*Frederick F. Martin*, Colorado—*W. B. Mooney*, Connecticut—*Helen T. Collins*, Delaware—*H. V. Holloway*, District of Columbia—*Edith L. Grosvenor*, Florida—*James S. Rickards*, Georgia—*J. O. Martin*, Hawaii—*T. J. Martin*, Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg*, Indiana—*Charles O. Williams*, Iowa—*Mary A. Lord*, Kansas—*M. E. Pearson*, Kentucky—*R. E. Williams*, Maine—*William B. Jack*, Massachusetts—*Annie C. Woodward*, Minnesota—*Harry L. Wahlstrand*, Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker*, Montana—*V. S. Williams*, Nebraska—*Dwight E. Porter*, New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan*, New Jersey—*R. B. Gurley*, New Mexico—*Vernon O. Tolle*, New York—*Frederick Houk Law*, North Dakota—*L. A. White*, Ohio—*R. E. Offenhauer*, Oklahoma—*M. E. Hurst*, Oregon—*C. A. Rice*, Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley*, Rhode Island—*Charles Carroll*, South Dakota—*S. B. Nissen*, Utah—*Arch M. Thurman*, Vermont—*Caroline S. Woodruff*, Virginia—*Edith B. Joynes*, Wisconsin—*Blanche M. McCarthy*, Wyoming—*H. H. Moyer*.

President Rosier: I have to take part on the program in another meeting but I want to hear the preliminary report of the Committee before I go and I will call for that report at this time and then I will ask *Mr. Lamkin* to take charge of the meeting.

Mr. Uel W. Lamkin: Mr. Chairman, I think it is an effectual way to keep a man from talking by asking him to preside. I appreciate what *Mr. Rosier* is trying to do.

The Committee met last night, took dinner together and later stayed until some of the men had to go to dress for the reception, and a little bit later *Miss Pyrtle* had to go to dress. The rest of us didn't dress to go to the reception and stayed on.

There were two matters which we considered—one was the tentative report of the Committee on Social and Economic Goals of America, and the other was this series on resolutions submitted to the Executive Committee by the National Council. *Mr. Saunders* advised us correctly, I think, that this report of the National Council should be submitted to the Executive Committee, but of course the Board of Directors or the Representative Assembly, one, is the policy-determining body of the National Education Association. Your Committee thought it should be brought to you and that you should undertake either to approve the principles involved or to disapprove them.

(He then explained the details of the report.)

President Rosier: What is your feeling about the Board of Directors adopting the resolutions submitted by the National Council? They were read yesterday and an outline given here today by *Mr. Lamkin*.

Mr. J. D. Williams (Alabama): Mr. Chairman, to get this matter moving, I move to adopt these resolutions.

Miss Edith Grosvenor (District of Columbia): Second the motion.

(The president stated the motion.)

President Rosier: Now the motion is open for discussion. We had quite considerable discussion yesterday but we will have more. *Mr. Kelley*.

(A number took part in the discussion.)

President Rosier: I will ask *Mr. Lamkin* to take the chair just for a little while.

(*President Rosier* was called from the meeting at this time.)

Secretary Crabtree (To *Mr. Lamkin*): You can't make any speeches now.

The Chair (*Mr. Lamkin*): No, can't talk any further.

Mr. J. Herbert Kelley (Pennsylvania): Mr. Chairman, I give the further information, since they have been further revised and since I knew nothing about them, and since we have a member of the National Council here in the person of our treasurer, *Dean Smith*, may we not have his interpretation of the latest development?

The Chair: *Dean Smith*.

(*Dean Smith* explained the importance of the principles set forth in the report. *Mr. Moore* of Illinois also made explanations as did *Mr. Mooney*.)

Mr. T. J. Walker (Missouri): *Mr. Lamkin*, I think it would clarify things somewhat probably if you would explain just what this National Council of Education is, what it was organized for, and what its function is and what its relation to us is.

The Chair: *Mr. Saunders*, will you explain that? I can't talk.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders (After explaining as requested): What could be done with this report is just the thing that has been suggested to you, and which I took the liberty myself of suggesting to this committee which you appointed yesterday, namely, that you adopt the report and refer it to the Executive Committee with authority to carry out its provisions insofar as that committee is able to do so. Where money would be involved that committee couldn't act because it would have to come back to you for authorization, but there are a great many things in that report that committee could refer to machinery already set up in the Association itself for putting into effect. So I should think it would be wise, in my own judgment—and this is my individual judgment only—that such action as that be taken, namely, that the report be approved and that it be referred to the Executive Committee for carrying out its provisions.

Mr. Williams: Now that is one avenue. Suppose we do what was suggested here, yesterday, receive it, and print it in the *Proceedings*, then what has happened? Then what does that mean?

Mr. Saunders: Well, in my judgment here is what it would mean—perhaps the chairman had better answer that question than that I should—but in my judgment here is what would happen if it were received and printed in the report, maybe a dozen, fifteen, possibly in each state, would read it and that would be the end of it. Nothing would follow and nothing worthwhile in education would come out of the action.

Mr. Williams: My third question: You do not think it is necessary that this be referred to the Delegate Assembly?

Mr. Saunders: No, I do not. I think this body is the body competent to take action. I think if you referred to it the Delegate Assembly 90 percent of them would not know what it is all about and there would be discussions on the floor which would be almost interminable and the ultimate outcome would be of no real service or benefit to us or to education either.

Mr. Williams: Thank you for your clear-cut statement.

(*Mr. R. E. Offenbauer* of Ohio and *Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle* of Nebraska took part in the discussion. The question again being called for, the motion was put and carried.)

The Chair: Then the second report which this committee has to make to you is that this matter, as approved by the Board of Directors, shall be referred to the Executive Committee with instruction of the Board of Directors to act and report their action—and what has happened in the meantime—to the next meeting of the Board of Directors.

Mr. T. J. Walker: I so move.

Miss Grosvenor: Second the motion.

(After discussion by *Mr. Rickards*, *Mr. Mooney* and others, the motion was put and carried.)

President Rosier (having returned): *Mr. Chairman*, just before *Mr. Moore* speaks—I am expecting someone to come after me any minute now and take me to the Columbia Broadcasting Studio—and so just before I go I want to express to the Board of Directors my deep appreciation of your cooperation during the year. It has been a hectic year, as I have stated before and we have encountered many difficulties, and we had a chance to make all sorts of mistakes and blunders, but I think we have avoided most of the blunders we might have made and I believe we are handing over the National Education Association and its whole organization to

the incoming administration in as fine shape as could possibly be expected considering all the difficulties we have encountered.

(He continued his remarks speaking of the value of the work of state directors, what departments had accomplished, and the responsibility of the Association.)

The Chair: Before Mr. Rosier goes, may I say for all of us that we are making no apology to anybody for the leadership of American education thru the National Education Association for this year. We appreciate the work that he has done and we only hope he is going to keep on fighting in the ranks of this Association as he has done in the years that are gone.

The Chair: You have a report tomorrow on the Social Economic Goals Committee. The committee which met last night has no desire to discuss the content of the report. We think, however, that the Board of Directors should consider just what it means and what disposition should be made of this report at the meeting tomorrow. The committee states that it is making a tentative report. The committee states in this printed report, which I think you ought to read before you go to this meeting tomorrow, if you haven't already read it, that it is making a tentative report.

Mr. Robert C. Moore (Illinois): I regret very much that *Dr. Kelly* is not here to make the report on this and the very moment that he comes in I shall relinquish this station and ask him to make the report and if I should say anything before he comes in, and he says differently after he comes in, he is right, and you will please forget what I said. However, I am going to speak just as frankly and truthfully and as positively as I can remember from my experience upon this committee and what took place.

I do not profess to be an expert in the knowledge of sociology and economics, but as one member of the committee I do profess to have had a rather intimate relation with some of the extremely difficult social and economic problems in my forty or fifty years of experience in Illinois, and in the last year or two they have piled up so rapidly that my experience in the last year or two has been about as much as all of the preceding time. However, there are some eminent men upon this committee: *John Dewey*, professor of philosophy at Columbia University; *Willard E. Givens*, superintendent of schools of Oakland, California; *Fred J. Kelly*, Division of Higher Education, the United States Office of Education, who was chairman of the committee; *Leon C. Marshall*, professor of law at Johns Hopkins University; *Howard A. Law*, professor of sociology of the University of Wisconsin. I want to say to you it was a very excellent opportunity for me to receive an education in sociology and economics just being associated with these men. It was largely my function to present difficult nuts for them to crack. There were three meetings of this committee. . . . On the other hand, we decided that there must be some certain fundamental economic principles underlying our American form of government and our particular social order in this country that ought to be expressed and definitely set out as guide posts for the teachers of this country. I believe you think that is fair. (He continued setting forth the great value of the study.)

The Chair: I feel I should say for the committee that there was no disposition on the part of our committee to question the content or character of the work of this committee. The Board of Directors have nothing but commendation for that. As many of you realize, a report of this kind, or any kind of a report, somebody may get up and say, "I move its adoption," and somebody else seconds it and it goes thru. We wanted to know if it is your view of the matter, and if you said it isn't we want the courtesy of a discussion of the matter.

Mr. W. B. Mooney (Colorado): Mr. Chairman, the suggestion has been made that *Mr. Moore* sketch the ten major points without reading the points.

The Chair: Read the ten favorable comments there.

Mr. Moore: Synopsis—it will only take me a few minutes to read the synopsis. (He then read the ten points and commented on each. The report of the committee is printed elsewhere in this volume, see index.)

The Chair: Any further discussion?

Mr. Mooney: I would just like to ask *Mr. Moore*, is there any plan of the committee to ask to be continued in its report? I see nothing in the report itself.

Mr. Moore: Why, no. I think it is a continuing committee or I think it is to serve until discharged. Now a motion could be made to accept and adopt this report and discharge the committee.

Mr. Mooney: Mr. Chairman, I move that the Board of Directors accept this report, pass it to the Delegate Assembly with the recommendation of the Board of Directors that the committee be continued for further study.

Mr. Williams: Second the motion.

The Chair: I don't know whether we have the right to accept it or not but we do accept it and pass it to the Delegate Assembly with the recommendation that the committee be continued, the report be accepted for further study and the committee be continued. Is there any discussion?

(The question being called for, the motion was put and carried.)

The Chair: So far as I know that is all the trouble I got you into.

Mr. H. V. Holloway (Delaware): Mr. Chairman, this Board of Directors has gone on record this afternoon in starting to meet one of the most vital problems that has been presented to it during the years in which I have been a member. I offer the following resolution.

Resolved, That it is the sense of the Board of Directors that the reports of all committees, including the Committee on Resolutions, be presented for the consideration of the Board of Directors before being presented to the General Assembly.

And I beg to move the adoption of that resolution.

The Chair: You have heard that motion. Is there a second?

Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle (Nebraska): I second it.

The Chair: Is there any discussion?

Mr. Walker: You specifically exempt all adoption?

Mr. Moore: Mr. Chairman, I would like to ask the director if that means the action or acceptance by the Board of Directors to foreclose contrary action by the Representative Assembly? Many it ought to and many it ought not, I am recognizing that question, but I would like to know definitely who is the final authority on legislation in the N. E. A.?

The Chair: *Mr. Saunders* will probably answer that.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders (Virginia): The final authority on legislation or anything else is the Representative Assembly to which all subordinate bodies must report its action for adoption, except certain details of management that is placed in the hands of the three servants of the Representative Assembly, that is the Executive Committee, the Board of Trustees and this Board of Directors. Certain minor functions with power to act reside in or are inherent in those three bodies but ultimately all authority rests with the Representative Assembly and they can reverse anything anyone of these three servants of the Representative Assembly does.

The Chair: Then if the Resolutions Committee presented a resolution which the Board of Directors thought was unwise to adopt, the Board of Directors could say to the Resolutions Committee: We think this resolution should not be adopted—but they couldn't control the action of the Representative Assembly nor veto it?

Mr. Saunders: No.

Mr. Mooney: Mr. Chairman, I am in favor of *Mr. Holloway's* resolution. I feel we need education, not for the purpose of keeping the Delegate Assembly or any committee from running away from itself, but I as a member of this Board feel that I myself need to study those things and if they are coming before me, it gives the motive to do so and to keep ourselves informed. I think it is a wise resolution.

Mr. Saunders: There are three committees you could not compel to make a report here as they are constituted directly by the Assembly and they are the Committee

on Resolutions, the Committee on Credentials, and the Committee on Necrology. You could not compel them to make their reports here.

The Chair: But if you were to ask the Committee on Resolutions to make its report here, they would probably do so.

Mr. Saunders: They would probably do so.

(The question being called for, the motion was put and carried.)

The Chair: I have heard discussion everywhere about when the new Board is to meet. It seems to me this is the last meeting of the old Board and if the new Board wants to meet immediately after the adjournment of the session on Friday——

Mr. Kelley: Wouldn't the Board of Directors find it very satisfactory to hold a breakfast meeting on Friday of the new Board and then not be held over for the afternoon?

The Chair: I never got a breakfast—I don't know.

Mr. Kelley: Anyway we could meet Friday morning and not be held over Friday afternoon?

Mr. Saunders: Mr. Chairman, I would have to raise a point of order there, and that is that the Representative Assembly adopted as the order of business the printed program, and the printed program sets forth the time and place of meeting of the new Executive Committee, the Board of Directors, and the Board of Trustees. I don't think you could very properly change that procedure.

Mr. Carroll: Mr. Chairman, change it tomorrow if we want to in the Representative Assembly. So far as that goes anything adopted by the Representative Assembly would govern the Board of Directors.

Mr. Saunders: But the point that I am making, *Mr. Carroll*, is this: This Board of Directors can meet all day today if it wants to, or on call for meeting, but the new Board of Directors hasn't met. They are not elected yet. They will not be elected until tomorrow by ballot. At the end of tomorrow they will be elected and the point I am making is that the new Board cannot assemble until it does so under the direction and authority and action of the Representative Assembly, and that is set forth when they adopted this as the order of business for this convention. That is the point I am making—this Board can do whatever it pleases but the new Board can't until it is constituted.

The Chair: There are lots of fellows in jail you know who couldn't be put in. *Mr. Holloway* now moves we adjourn.

(The meeting thereupon adjourned.)

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*.

Friday Morning, July 7, 1933

The meeting of the new Board of Directors was called to order promptly at 9 a. m. in the West Ballroom of the Stevens Hotel, by *President Rosier*.

President Rosier: The meeting of the Board of Directors will please come to order. The director ought to be a conscious force in the organized forces of his state. I hope the old directors and those who are new will go back to the states feeling that you are a part of a nationally organized force for the protection of the educational interests of the children. And so I want again to emphasize the power and force of organization. It has been my purpose this year to place this emphasis upon organization, and from what I hear about *Miss Gray*, I think that is her strong point, and I rather think a year or two in succession of emphasis upon organization will be altogether for the benefit of the Association and for the benefit of education. I hope you will carry this same organizing spirit back to your homes. You ought to give a lot of cooperation to the development of your state association and to your local associations.

We have many difficulties ahead of us yet—there are all sorts of difficult problems—but with a revival in business we are thrown back into a position where we can do things with some hope. We have been in despair the last year or two, to tell the truth. Most of this year I think that I, and most of you, were in a state of despair, wondering what we were going to do, but the last month or two things have commenced to change, and I believe here this week we have all caught the spirit of a new day. So it is a very great pleasure and gratification to me to turn over this work of leadership of these organized forces to my successor. She represents a great state organization. I wish you would bear that in mind, that she is the product of a great state organization. I don't think there is a state organization in the United States that has done any more wonderful work in the last year or two than the state association in Pennsylvania. A fine group of men and women; some of the finest men in this country have been in that organization and gone down to Harrisburg and fought the good fight, just as good fights have been fought in all of the state capitals of the country. I hope you may give to *Miss Gray* the same cordial support and co-operation which you have given so generously to me.

It is my very great pleasure to present to you your new president, *Miss Gray*.

(*Mr. Kelley* came forward with the very beautiful basket of flowers which had been presented to *Miss Gray* by her state upon her election.)

Voice: Now *Kelley* would do that!

Miss Gray: Yes, he would. It is exactly what *Kelley* would do. I want to give you just a word of greeting if I may, please.

As a classroom teacher, when the people of the state asked me to be the president of the state association I was so breathless and so mystified to think anybody would look at a classroom teacher and think they could do anything big like that, that I just simply thought, and thought, and thought for over a month, "Why, it couldn't be; I couldn't be so presumptuous!" But if there is one thing I will ask you as directors to do, it is to believe in the classroom teachers, not believe in them because they are classroom teachers, but to see something of wonder in the power of development of that group. There are potential leaders there. They haven't been awakened and they can be saved for great and glorious work. Other people are seeing in our classroom leaders that same power and are guiding it in wrong channels. Now we have got to save those people. I don't mean to say they are in danger—they are not. They are up and coming, they are on their toes; they want this thing—they believe that the National Education Association is a force. You know they are constantly saying, "What is that organization doing for us?" They don't realize that the N. E. A. could be their power, their own strength challenged to service. And that is what I hope, in a modest way, to be able to convince them.

For the development that has been patiently given me in my own state, thru my own leaders—my own dear *Dr. Davidson* and *Dr. Finegan*, who have gone, and the executive secretary of our great state association, who has the most wonderful developing power among us teachers of any of the educators I have known—I am extremely grateful.

With this modest beginning, I want to tell you I feel like a tug that is taking out of port some great vessel. The captain is on the vessel. I am not the captain; you are the captain. And if I can do anything to take this ship and launch it into the deep sea properly, I am going to do it, with every power I have. Thank you very much.

Jessie Gray, president-elect, presiding.

The President: Will you call the roll, please, *Mr. Crabtree*?

(*Secretary Crabtree* thereupon called the roll as follows:)

Directors Ex Officio: *Joseph Rosier*, *Henry Lester Smith*, treasurer; *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, Board of Directors, and *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary.

Life Directors: *Florence Hale*, *Mary McSkimmon*, *Carroll G. Pearse*.

The Secretary: Now we will call the roll of State Directors.

State Directors: Alabama—*J. D. Williams*, Alaska—*Cleo Campbell*, Arizona—*W. T. Machan*, Arkansas—*C. M. Hirst*, California—*J. R. Croad*, Colorado—*W. B. Mooney*, Connecticut—*Helen T. Collins*, Delaware—*H. V. Holloway*, District of Columbia—*Edith Louise Grosvenor*, Florida—*James S. Rickards*, Georgia—*George W. Wannamaker*, Hawaii—*T. J. Martin* (alternate for *Oren E. Long*), Idaho—*Raymond H. Snyder*, Illinois—*A. L. Whittenberg*, Indiana—*Charles O. Williams*, Iowa—*Mary A. Lord*, Kansas—*F. L. Schlagle*, Kentucky—*R. E. Williams*, Louisiana—*P. H. Griffith*, Maine—*William B. Jack*, Maryland—*William Burdick*, Massachusetts—*Annie C. Woodward*, Michigan—*E. T. Cameron*, Minnesota—*Harry L. Wahlstrand*, Mississippi—*H. V. Cooper*, Missouri—*Thomas J. Walker*, Montana—*V. S. Williams*, Nebraska—*George P. Knippprath*, New Hampshire—*Dana S. Jordan*, New Jersey—*R. B. Gurley*, New Mexico—*Vernon O. Tolle*, New York—*Frederick Houk Law*, North Carolina—*T. W. Andrews*, Ohio—*R. E. Offenhauer*, Oklahoma—*M. E. Hurst*, Oregon—*Birdine Merrill*, Pennsylvania—*J. Herbert Kelley*, Rhode Island—*Charles Carroll*, South Carolina—*A. C. Flora*, South Dakota—*S. B. Nissen*, Tennessee—*S. L. Ragsdale*, Texas—*W. A. James* (alternate for *L. W. Rogers*), Utah—*James T. Worlton*, Vermont—*Caroline S. Woodruff*, Virginia—*Edith B. Joynes*, Wisconsin—*Blanche M. McCarthy*, Wyoming—*H. H. Moyer*.

Mr. Saunders: Madam Chairman, I move you that the representatives of absent delegates, duly certified and recommended be seated, the resignations of such absent directors being accepted.

(Motion seconded, question called for, motion put and carried.)

The secretary explained that a mistake had been made on the ballots too late to be corrected before balloting. The name *M. J. Clarke* of Nevada should replace that of *F. Edgar Mineer*. We will consider *Mr. Clarke* elected if satisfactory to the Board of Directors.

(It was agreed to. *Mr. Crabtree* continued):

There are a number here waiting to extend invitations, and I would suggest to the president that we take up that item of business next so that those who are here for the purpose of extending invitations may leave at the close of that part of our business.

The President: We shall now be glad to hear invitations from those who wish the N. E. A. convention to meet with them next year.

Mr. Charles Carroll (Rhode Island): Madam President, I move the time for extending invitations be limited to five minutes each.

(Motion seconded, put and carried.)

Mr. J. M. Gwinn (California): Madam Chairman—

The President: *Mr. Gwinn* of California.

Mr. Gwinn: I have with me *Mr. Campbell*, representing the Convention and Tourist Bureau of San Francisco. This is California's day out at the Fair. He has a duty there. I would like him to say just a word. This is for 1935, not for 1934.

The President: *Mr. Campbell*.

(*Mr. Campbell* extended an invitation for 1935.)

The President: I shall be glad to hear from anybody else at this time who has an invitation.

Mr. John Callahan (Wisconsin): I am here to represent the state of Wisconsin, the city of Milwaukee, and its Chamber of Commerce and the City Council, and the mayor, and all the teachers organizations for that matter, and to extend to you an invitation to meet in 1934 in the city of Milwaukee. I have the president of the State Teachers Association here. He might like to say a word.

Mr. O. H. Plenzke (Wisconsin): As president of the State Teachers Association, at the plea and request of the several state teachers associations, who are affiliated in large numbers, very loyal in every way, we would like to add our request to meet in Milwaukee next year. (His invitation was cordially received.)

The President: I recognize *Mr. McNalley*, assistant managing director of the Toronto Convention and Tourist Association at this time.

Mr. McNalley (Canada): My American confrères are all sitting tight back here, waiting to be the last ones to speak, so I am going to break the ice. I esteem it an honor to come before you, and I hope represent, as adequately as I may, the mayor of the corporation, and the citizens of the city of Toronto, to extend to you the very heart-felt invitation to place your convention in the city of Toronto next year. There are before you executive, formal invitations, which start with that of the minister of education for the province of Ontario, and the Board of Education for the city of Toronto, and others, and display a wide and I think rather genuine interest in the possibilities of your coming to Toronto to meet with us. (He continued the invitation and was warmly applauded as he closed.)

Mr. W. H. Pearce (Michigan): Madam President, may I ask the gentleman whether there is any meeting hall in Toronto that will hold more than 2000 people? I didn't understand him to say.

Mr. McNalley: We can seat any gathering which requires a seating capacity of not more than 12,000 efficiently.

The President: Are there any other invitations to be extended at this time?
Miss Grosvenor.

Miss Edith Louise Grosvenor (District of Columbia): I had hoped to be the proverbial woman and have the last word, but I see Detroit is holding out on me. Perhaps it is just as well. The last time I did have the last word, in 1931, Detroit didn't hold out on me but Atlantic City beat me out. So, even tho nobody else is saying anything, even tho I am not from California, I am going to talk. (She extended the invitation for the District Association and other agencies.)

Mr. E. T. Cameron (Michigan): I wish to extend to the Board of Directors of the N. E. A. a sincere invitation to hold your meeting next summer in Detroit. I do this in behalf of the teachers of our state, the teachers of our city, the various group organizations, our Association of Schoolboards, and our citizens.

We sincerely invite you to come. And at this time I would like to ask the privilege of presenting *Mr. Lee Berry*, a member of one of our local boards of education, and director and manager of the Detroit Convention Bureau. He will tell you something of the advantages the city of Detroit has to offer you. (*Mr. Berry* was introduced and extended a most cordial invitation for Detroit.)

The President: Are there any other invitations at this time?

Mr. R. B. Gurley (New Jersey): Madam President, Atlantic City likes the N. E. A. We would like to have you come there every year. We like you. I don't know whether you like us but we hope you do. At the request of the State teachers Association in Atlantic City, I am asking you to come to Atlantic City as soon as you can possibly do it.

Mr. Charles Carroll (Rhode Island): Are they all done?

Secretary Crabtree: The president of the Association asks us to change our procedure here for just a moment. We noticed *Mr. John Bowman*, the manager of this hotel, step in at this time, and we understand he has a word to say to us, so she wishes me to call upon him at this time. *Mr. Bowman.* (He responded in a speech of appreciation for the Association's having come to Chicago.)

Miss Grosvenor: Madam President, I would like at this time to ask just a moment's time for the Convention Bureau man from the District of Columbia. *Mr. Nichols.* (*Mr. Nichols* responded by urging the Association to meet in Washington in 1934.)

Mr. Callahan: Madam President, may I request we make it unanimous and that I be given an opportunity to call on the Convention Bureau Director from Milwaukee, *Mr. Ferguson.* (*Mr. Ferguson* added to the Milwaukee invitation.)

The President: Are there any other invitations? If not I shall ask you what action you wish to take and how you wish to record your decision?

Mr. Carroll: Madam President, I understand this is an advisory vote and that no mandate is laid upon the officers in determining the place of convention. It occurs to me it might be well to make it purely a preferential ballot and so have the vote of the directors indicate the three cities as first, second, and third choice.

(This being taken as a renewal of the motion, it was seconded, and the motion stated by the president and after discussion and explanation it was carried.)

The President: I will appoint *Mr. Law* of New York, *Mr. James* of Texas, and *Mrs. Joynes* of Virginia to count the ballots.

Mr. A. L. Whittenberg (Illinois): I don't want to disturb anybody's conversation—go right along talking—but I want to remind you, a year ago in Atlantic City, Illinois made an earnest plea for you to come to Chicago, and you were gracious enough to come to Chicago. Last Monday morning Illinois undertook to welcome you in the most loyal way we knew how, and thruout the week Illinois has been at your service, and now Illinois would come to you before you go away and thank you for your gracious presence in Chicago, and for your helpful, ameliorating influence—and it has certainly been fine. Now I would like to say to the successful city here—whatever it is—if you get as much fun out of working for the 1934 convention as Illinois has had out of this convention, then I should say that you will be very happy. We most joyously thank you for your presence and your help.

The President: While the ballots are being counted, if it will be satisfactory to you, we will proceed to the election of officers and there is a trustee that may be nominated at this time.

Mr. George Wannamaker (Georgia): As was explained on the floor of the Delegate Assembly this morning, the Association has numerous committees and departments. I think a great many who have been serving on this Board of Directors for a number of years realize the responsibility of the position of trustee of the organization, but for the benefit of those who are new on the committee—and I don't mean to be presumptuous at all—I want to say, as one who has attended conventions for innumerable years and interested in the Association, I can conceive of nothing more important in the way of an election than the election of men on the Board of Trustees. I come from the state of Georgia, but as I look upon nominations made in the National Education Association, I try to look at the United States as a whole, and in looking over all of it, from one end of the country to the other, I know of no one who could serve this Association better than *Mr. Gwinn*, the superintendent of schools in San Francisco.

Mr. Croad (California): Madam President, as the delegate from California, it gives me extreme pleasure to second the nomination that was made from Georgia. Our representative on the Board of Trustees, *Mr. Gwinn*, is the one man from the western states on the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Gwinn as a member of that Board surely deserves to be retained.

Miss Florence Hale (New York): Madam President, I move the nominations be closed and *Mr. Gwinn* be elected by acclamation.

(Motion put, carried, and *Mr. Gwinn* declared elected as a trustee for four years.)

Mr. J. M. Gwinn (California): All you have to do is get more memberships so that we can handle more money. That is what we need—plenty of members.

Mr. T. W. Andrews (North Carolina): Madam President, I don't want to interrupt the regular procedure but one item I would like to get in before we start this. Like to get it in before your vote as to the convention place is announced. We have had a most unusual invitation presented to us for the meeting next year, and regardless of how the preferential vote may turn out, I would like to suggest or move if necessary, that we express our appreciation for the magnificent international gesture which has come to us in the form of an invitation to take our meeting to Toronto next year and reciprocate in feeling, in cordiality of spirit if we do not show that we have done so with our ballots.

The President: Was that in the form of a motion?

Mr. Andrews: I would be glad to make it as a motion if you would like to have it.

Miss Grosvenor: Second the motion.

(Question called for, motion put, and carried.)

The President: I wish to extend to *Mr. McNalley* our very good wishes and appreciation for the splendid invitation from Toronto and the request he take back to Toronto our great appreciation.

Mr. McNalley: I appreciate that very highly. I trust that if I am not at the top of the list on this ballot—and quite frankly I hardly expect to be—we shall have the pleasure of greeting a great many of you as individuals during the year.

The President: The next officer that is to be elected is a member of the Executive Committee, *Mr. Gosling's* term having expired.

Mr. R. E. Offenbauer (Ohio): Madam President, as has been said here, we appreciate very much the importance of the Board of Trustees. We also appreciate very much the importance of the Executive Committee. A year ago this body unanimously elected *Mr. Gosling* a member of the Executive Committee and I would like at this time to renominate him for the position.

Miss Grosvenor: Second the motion.

Mr. J. D. Williams (Alabama): Madam President, I move the nominations close and that we elect by acclamation.

(Motion seconded by *Miss Grosvenor*, put to a vote, carried and *Mr. Gosling* declared unanimously elected a member of the Executive Committee.)

The President: Now we are ready for nominations for a member of the Budget Committee.

Mr. W. B. Jack (Maine): I would like to place in nomination *Mr. George Wannamaker* of Georgia. He served with the Budget Committee before—did some painstaking and very hard work on that committee. I believe there is no more important committee than the Budget Committee.

The President: I recognize *Mr. Walker* of Missouri.

Mr. T. J. Walker (Missouri): Last year we adopted a resolution that members of this committee could not be elected to succeed themselves, with the idea of introducing new blood on the committee. Since I cannot nominate that excellent lady who is retiring, I want to nominate another excellent New Englander. This lady whom I want to nominate is a member of our Board of Directors, is president of the Teachers League in her city, is a member of the board of directors of the State Teachers Association in her state, is editor of the teachers organ in her city, has been fighting for years there for the benefit of the teachers, and has such consummate skill and ability that the superintendent asked her and her committee to represent the schools before the mayor and the civic organizations of her city. I have great honor in placing before this body the name of *Miss Helen T. Collins* of New Haven, Connecticut.

Mr. Wannamaker: Madam Chairman, may I be recognized at this time?

The President: Yes, *Mr. Wannamaker*. (He then asked that his name be dropped after thanking *Mr. Jack* for nominating him.)

The President: *Mr. Wannamaker* having withdrawn his nomination, I presume the motion now carries the added provision that the nominations be closed and *Miss Helen Collins* be nominated by acclamation a member of the Budget Committee.

(Question called for, motion put and carried and *Miss Helen Collins* declared elected by acclamation a member of the Budget Committee.)

The President: We are glad to have *Miss Collins* as a member of the Budget Committee. This body makes the appropriations and I am going to call on *Mr. Whittenberg* at this time to give a report on the appropriations or budget.

Mr. Whittenberg: Madam President, the report necessarily is very, very brief.

You will recall that the preliminary report of the Budget Committee was submitted on Saturday afternoon; that it was represented to you on Tuesday afternoon

and some changes made and approved by this Board. This report as approved by your Board on Tuesday afternoon was presented this morning to the General Assembly, that change being that an appropriation for \$200 was voted for the use and purposes of the Resolutions Committee. And so the report that you have seen, exactly as you approved it last Tuesday with the one exception I mention of \$200 being added for the use of the Resolutions Committee is the report now of your Budget Committee. And I move now that the several sums enumerated in this printed volume, with the one exception I have mentioned for the Resolutions Committee, be now appropriated by this body.

(Seconded by *R. E. Offenhauer*, motion put and carried.)

The President: We will accept the budget as it has been prepared.

Mr. Joseph H. Saunders (Virginia): Madam President, if there are no items of new business, I move that the resignation of those duly elected at this meeting to sit for the regularly elected members be accepted, and the duly elected members of this Board of Directors be elected. That motion is necessary.

Mr. Wannamaker: Madam Chairman, before that motion is put, may I be privileged to make a statement?

The delegates from one of the states represented here, my state in particular, asked me if I would make a motion in this meeting of the Board of Directors that I feel a little reluctant to make, but I feel I ought to be privileged to make a statement. As those of you who were here in this meeting at this time, or in attendance upon the Representative Assembly this morning, will note there was a point of very great importance to the Association voted upon.

I move you, Madam President, that we request the editor of our *Journal*, the official organ, to make a full statement of the resolution, the amendment that was offered there this morning, in the *Journal*, prior to the meeting next summer.

Mr. R. E. Offenhauer (Ohio): Second the motion.

The President: In which number of the *Journal* would you say?

Mr. Wannamaker: That will have to be left to him. It will have to be probably more than once prior to the next meeting, and the explanation should be made about it.

(Question called for, motion put, and carried.)

The President: *Mr. Law*, will you give us the report of your committee, please as to the place of meeting?

Mr. F. H. Law (New York): Madam Chairman, ladies and gentlemen. Your committee appointed to examine the ballots found 148 choices had been expressed as follows. (He then explained how many votes had been cast for first, second, and third choice.)

According to the total votes cast the choice of meeting place was in the following order: Washington, Detroit, Milwaukee, Toronto, Atlantic City, Hawaii, Memphis.

The President: Is there anything else that is to be brought before the attention of the Board of Directors at this time?

Mr. W. B. Mooney (Colorado): Madam President, I move the matter be referred to the Executive Committee for final action.

Mr. Saunders: May I ask the chairman of the committee just once more—some discussion there—was the first choice for Washington or first choice for Detroit?

Mr. Law: Washington for first place received 34 ballots; Detroit for first place received 12.

Mr. Saunders: Thank you.

The President: If there is no other business to come before the Board of Directors a motion to adjourn is in order. Well, we have not yet acted on *Mr. Saunders'* motion.

Mr. Saunders: I move that the resignations of temporary directors be accepted and those regularly elected by the Representative Assembly this morning be now elected members of the Board of Directors.

(Question called for, motion seconded, put and carried.)

The President: The resignations are accepted and the newly elected directors are duly seated. A motion to adjourn is in order.

(A motion to adjourn was offered, seconded, put, and carried and the session closed.)

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JESSIE GRAY, *President*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Minneapolis, Minnesota

Monday Morning, February 27, 1933

The meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association, held at the Radisson Hotel, was called to order at 11 a.m., by *President Rosier*. The following were present: *Joseph Rosier*, president, *Florence Hale*, *Joseph H. Saunders*, *Henry Lester Smith*, *Thomas W. Gosling*, and *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary. *Edgar G. Doudna*, member, Board of Trustees, was present on invitation.

Upon motion it was voted that the reading of the minutes of the last meeting, inasmuch as they had been printed in the *Proceedings*, be dispensed with.

For the information of the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees, *President Rosier* reviewed a few things in connection with the action of the Executive Committee. He stated that the most important matter coming before the Executive Committee at the meeting in Atlantic City was the determination of place of meeting for the next annual convention. At that time the Board of Directors gave a preferential vote for the city of Chicago, the second largest vote being for Milwaukee, the matter being left in the hands of *President Rosier*, as president of the Committee, to look into the matter and make final decision.

A direct report reached *President Rosier* that one group of teachers in Chicago did not want the convention, and there was other conflicting opinion about it. Wishing to follow the preferential vote of the Board of Directors, *President Rosier* asked *Charles H. Judd*, dean, School of Education, University of Chicago, to make a careful investigation and give a confidential report on the whole situation in Chicago. A very thoro report was given, which determined that the public-school system in Chicago and the two universities there were unanimous in wanting the convention, giving their pledges to make it a success.

President Rosier gave a résumé of his meeting with the staff of the National Education Association at headquarters, in September 1932, and the discussion regarding the financial conditions of the Association and of the country at large. As a result of the discussion the staff members volunteered to make whatever sacrifices were necessary to carry on thru the year. *President Rosier* and *Secretary Crabtree* resolved upon the plan, which was readily agreed to by the staff members, that a certain number of weeks' service be furnished by each member during the year, without pay; the payless weeks to be distributed thruout the year in such a way as to cause the least hardship on the staff. He commented at length upon the very fine spirit of cooperation from the members of the staff, stating he felt the year could probably be finished, because of this fine spirit of cooperation, without a deficit; that it would be necessary to operate on about a 20 percent reduction of the budget, and that with *Secretary Crabtree's* fine management in holding down other expenses, accounts could probably be balanced.

President Rosier requested *Secretary Crabtree* to comment upon his own report, or matters he wished to bring up. *Secretary Crabtree* referred again to the matter

of the cooperation of the headquarters staff, stating that the demands were so great they felt they did not dare drop anybody from the staff or reduce it further than was absolutely necessary; that a great many had been let out, but that all were kept as long as possible in view of the fact that the Joint Commission had meant much extra work for the staff members.

Secretary Crabtree stated they had also arranged to give four weeks' free service, and that this free service, in terms of a cut would represent more than the government workers had received; also, that he was confident the budget could not be met without a still further cut, making at least five weeks, in the end, of free service. *Secretary Crabtree* stated he was setting the example of adding another week of free service for himself because his salary was the largest, and he felt he should lead.

Discussion was had with reference to the work of the Emergency Commission. *Trustee Doudna* stated he hoped they would get some emotional "kick" into their material put out, and not rely on the intellectual appeal, because the "low brows" would not be moved. *President Rosier* stated the hope had been expressed to him that the Emergency Commission material would not be made a research enterprise.

Mr. Gosling emphasized using local teachers associations for series of talks on education.

President Rosier stated that at the Atlantic City meeting arrangements were made with *Miss Hale* to continue the radio broadcasting this year under the auspices of the N. E. A.; that *Miss Hale* had given it a great deal of attention and had held the programs to a high standard, and that between this time and next July the officers should be thinking about how that work should be carried on.

Discussion was brought up regarding the program for the summer meeting in Chicago, and *President Rosier* asked for suggestions. He stated that, carrying out his idea of the power of organization, personally he was not looking for "big guns" especially, unless they represent organization, and that he did not want to have anyone speak on the program who was hostile to public education. *Mr. Gosling* and others made suggestions.

There being no further business the meeting adjourned at 12 noon.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Chicago, Illinois

Saturday Morning, July 1, 1933

The opening meeting of the Executive Committee of the seventy-first annual convention of the National Education Association took place as scheduled. It opened at 10 a.m. in the president's suite 1004-1006, Stevens Hotel.

There were present *Joseph Rosier*, president; *Florence Hale*, *Henry Lester Smith*, *Thomas W. Gosling*, *Joseph H. Saunders*, and *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary. There were also present on invitation *Kate V. Wofford* and *Edgar G. Doudna*, members of the Board of Trustees. *Joseph Rosier*, the president, presided at the meeting.

The secretary was called on to read the minutes of the previous meeting but since they had been sent out to members of the committee, reading was dispensed with and the minutes were adopted.

The chairman then asked the secretary to read his annual report which opened up a number of subjects for general discussion. He called attention, in the report, to the work of the Joint Commission and the plans for the work for the new year. He mentioned the effort to keep the schools open and read the tribute to the teachers of today which he prepared in honor of the sacrifices made by teachers to keep the schools open. He spoke in some detail of the work going on at the headquarters

office. He explained the efforts to force the *Saturday Evening Post* to apologize for articles which had been printed finding fault with teachers and the schools. He presented copies of the correspondence between himself and the editors of the *Saturday Evening Post*. The correspondence showed that *Mr. Lorimer* had been severely punished yet he was too proud to apologize.

Members of the committee discussed favorably the various parts of the report expressing the hope that this report would be widely distributed. The report is printed in the volume of *Proceedings*.

While no motions were made and no formal action was taken, yet the committee discussed a number of subjects of importance concerning the program of the meeting and concerning the action that ought to be taken in order to protect the schools of the nation from injury by the National Economy League, tax leagues, and other organizations.

Miss Hale was called upon to discuss the value of radio in education. Her report brought out the far-reaching results of the program on American Schools. There was the general feeling that her program should be continued during the following year. Members expressed themselves greatly pleased with the programs for 1933. *Superintendent J. M. Gwinn*, a member of the Board of Trustees, arrived before the meeting ended and made a short talk for the good of the order.

Treasurer Smith asked what authority the treasurer had as to depositing the funds of the Association. The chairman of the Board of Trustees, *Mr. Saunders*, explained the matter of choosing the bank was in the hands of the Board of Trustees and called attention to a legal opinion on the question.

There being no further business, a motion was made to adjourn. The motion was seconded and carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*

JOSEPH ROSIER, *President*

Friday Afternoon, July 7, 1933

The meeting of the new Executive Committee of the National Education Association convened at 2:30 p.m. at the Stevens Hotel.

The following members were present: *Jessie Gray*, president, *Joseph Rosier*, first vicepresident, *Thomas W. Gosling*, *Joseph H. Saunders*, *Henry Lester Smith*, and *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary. Members of the Board of Trustees were present on invitation. *Jessie Gray*, the new president, presided.

Mr. Saunders made a motion that the next annual meeting be held in the city of Washington providing satisfactory contacts can be made by our business department with the officials of the city of Washington for proper facilities for holding the convention. The motion provided that in case the business department does not get definite statements from officials, that the committee consider the advisability of meeting elsewhere. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Rosier*. After general discussion the motion was put and unanimously carried.

The secretary stated that he had been requested by the Budget Committee to present the recommendation to the Executive Committee that the salary for this year be cut 10 percent from the regular salary schedule and that the president and secretary again be authorized to make further reduction in case the income should be lower than anticipated. He expressed the hope that the Executive Committee would give the president and secretary complete authority to act in case of the emergency mentioned. No salary below twelve hundred is to be cut. *Mr. Saunders* moved the adoption of the recommendation. *Mr. Smith* seconded the motion. It was put and unanimously carried.

After the passage of the motion, *Mr. Rosier* took occasion to say that he was greatly pleased to have the National Education Association set an example in the

matter of salary schedules. He said that he understood that the reduction of all salaries was a temporary matter and that the schedule of salaries in effect when the depression came upon us is still the schedule except as the board is forced to make temporary reductions. He hoped that all superintendents would have their boards, as far as possible, adopt this same procedure. *Mr. Saunders* and others took the same view.

The secretary presented the request of the Legislative Commission that arrangements be made to promote the sale of the new work on social trends provided a cheaper edition is printed for the use of teachers. After discussing the question from various angles, a motion was made that the question be left in the hands of the president and secretary with power to render such assistance as may seem advisable. The motion was seconded, put, and carried.

A motion was then made by *Mr. Rosier* that the new president be authorized to appoint and reorganize such committees as she finds desirable. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Smith*. After discussion it was put and carried.

The secretary, after explaining the need of action of this kind, proposed the following resolution:

The secretary of the National Education Association is hereby authorized to execute loan agreements and to request application of loan values towards premiums on Retirement-Annuity Insurance policies issued by the Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States under the Association's Retirement-Annuity Insurance plan.

This action specifically approves the execution of loans on policies No. 4,563,705; No. 4,563,725; No. 7,703,017, to be applied toward the aggregate premiums due June 1, 1933, on all of the policies of the Association and its employees and further authorizes the secretary to execute similar loan agreements when, in his judgment, conditions so require.

The secretary is further authorized to execute assignments of the Association's policies to its employees when conditions of settlements so require.

It was moved by *Mr. Smith* and seconded by *Mr. Rosier* that the resolution as presented be adopted. After discussion and explanation the motion was put and carried.

It was recommended by the secretary that *Mr. Allan* be authorized to make reasonable discounts on advertising for the fall and winter issues of the *Journal*. *Mr. Gosling* moved the adoption of the recommendation. *Mr. Saunders* seconded the motion. It was then put and carried.

The secretary called attention to the solicitation of advertising in bulletins of the departments. He said the Association had not intended for departments to encroach on the advertising field but to leave it to local, state, and national associations. It seemed to be the opinion of the committee that the bulletins should not do this advertising, particularly those departments receiving appropriations from the general association. It was thought that the matter would need to be handled diplomatically. *Mr. Gosling* moved that the plan be worked out by negotiation on the part of the president with the departments. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Rosier*. It was put and carried.

A motion was made by *Mr. Smith* that matters which had been referred by the Board of Directors to the Executive Committee be placed in the hands of the president and secretary with power to act. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Saunders*, put and carried.

The president, *Miss Gray*, called upon members of the Executive Committee for guidance and help. She mentioned the big problems before us, explaining the view that the president will need to have the help of individuals and the help of groups in order to do her work satisfactorily.

Mr. Rosier then expressed appreciation for the help which he had received from members of the Executive Committee during the past year. He mentioned several ordeals thru which the Association had passed and mentioned the practical help which he received from members. He felt that no one could have had better support than he had and the success of the administration was due to the policy of working together. He explained how several most difficult problems were handled. The members of the committee individually pledged support to *Miss Gray* and urged her to call upon them whenever they could be of help.

A motion was made by *Mr. Gosling* to express appreciation to *Miss Hale* for her work on the Executive Committee and over the radio. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Smith*, and carried by unanimous vote.

It was explained by *Mr. Rosier* that he had assured *Miss Hale* that she was to continue her work over the radio for the Association and then the president, *Miss Gray*, stated that she would be glad to comply with that promise and do what she could to encourage *Miss Hale* in going ahead with her fine constructive program.

There being no further business, the motion was made to adjourn. It was seconded, put, and carried.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*
JESSIE GRAY, *President*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES ¹

Minneapolis, Minnesota

Monday Morning, February 27, 1933

(In Brief)

The meeting of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association, held at the Radisson Hotel, was called to order at 9:20 a.m., by *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman of the Board.

The following members were present: *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, *Joseph Rosier*, president, *Kate V. Wofford*, *Edgar G. Doudna*, and *J. W. Crabtree*, secretary, National Education Association.

The reading of the call of the meeting was dispensed with, inasmuch as all present had received copies.

Upon motion of *Trustee Doudna*, seconded by *President Rosier*, it was voted to dispense with the reading of the minutes of the last meeting.

Chairman Saunders stated he had negotiated with the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company for renewal of the loan, that papers had been properly signed for the renewal of the loan on March 5, 1933, and asked for approval of the following resolution:

Be it Resolved, That the action of the chairman of the Board of Trustees in renewing a loan of \$162,500 with the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company of Philadelphia due March 5, 1933, on the following terms: viz., \$12,500 will be paid on the principal debt on March 5, 1933, \$150,000 to be borrowed for a period of ten years at 6 percent interest payable semi-annually until the debt has been reduced to \$100,000; thereafter until maturity or until the debt is paid interest to be at the rate of 5½ percent; \$5000 to be paid on principal on September 5, 1933, and semi-annually thereafter with the privilege of paying additional amounts upon principal at interest dates in amounts of \$500, or multiple thereof, not to exceed a total additional payment upon principal, in any one calendar year, of 20 percent of the unpaid principal, 2 percent of the amount of said loan renewed to be paid as commission to *E. Quincy Smith, Inc.*, is hereby approved and ratified.

¹ For minutes of the Chicago meetings of the Board of Trustees, see p. 947.

Be it Further Resolved, That the president and secretary of the National Education Association respectively be authorized and requested to affix their signatures to the contract with Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company of Philadelphia embodying the terms above stated.

Chairman Saunders stated it had been found the terms could be altered somewhat, inasmuch as on March 5 the sum of \$15,000, instead of \$12,500, could be paid on the principal debt, leaving an amount of \$147,500 to be borrowed instead of an amount of \$150,000.

Upon motion of *Trustee Doudna*, seconded by *Trustee Wofford*, it was voted to adopt the resolution.

The matter of 2 percent commission on renewal of loan to *E. Quincy Smith, Inc.*, was discussed, *Chairman Saunders* advising it was a regulation, and unavoidable, no matter with whom the loan was renewed.

The sale of the radio equipment to the Hagerstown Broadcasting Company having been approved by correspondence with Board of Trustee members, the following resolution was approved for the record:

Resolved, That the sale of the radio equipment to the Hagerstown Broadcasting Company for the sum of \$2500 is hereby approved and that the sum of \$5900 be charged off the cost of our properties.

Chairman Saunders set forth in detail the controversy regarding the matter of leaks in the fire room of the building, stating that they had been stopped by laying a system of tile drains and resurfacing the floor, one-half the cost amounting to \$219.91, having been paid by the Association and one-half by the building contractor. Inasmuch as, under the terms of the contract, the building contractor had complied with specifications of the architect, it was considered the best policy to accept the building contractor's proposition for repairing the leaks in the fire room, and thus avoid a possible law suit, attorney's fees, et cetera. *Chairman Saunders* was heartily commended for his policy in regard to this matter, and it was voted, upon motion of *Trustee Wofford*, seconded by *President Rosier*, that his motion in this regard be approved.

In order to comply with the rules governing a correct audit of the books of the Association, *Chairman Saunders* stated he had suggested to the Association that under the item "Equipment" as set forth in the financial statement, they give a note in amount of \$13,144.01 covering "Operating Equipment," and that it be carried as a bond, or loan, the same as in the bond account. That inasmuch as all the earnings of the Permanent Fund go back to the Association, any interest paid on the note would immediately go back to them as earnings, and that at any time they had a surplus they could pay it on that note. That it was merely a matter of correct bookkeeping, and would relieve the Association of the necessity of paying this amount in the present stringency. The action of *Chairman Saunders* was approved.

Trustee Doudna referred to the new type of letterhead in use by the Board of Trustees. After discussion it was the consensus of opinion that the letterhead be improved by crowding it up a little further on the page, and the names be put in better balance, also that half pages be provided.

A discussion was had regarding the securities and property left to the National Education Association as provided for in the will of *Marilla Zeroyda Parker* of Chicago, deceased. *Chairman Saunders* explained in detail all matters in connection with this will, and the employment of a lawyer in Chicago, by name *I. T. Greenacre*. *Chairman Saunders* read the list of property as contained in the will, and stated an agreement had been reached with other heirs whereby the National Education Association would receive one-half of all properties in consideration of which the National Education Association would relinquish all rights under the will. *Mr. Harold A. Allan*, business manager of the National Education Association,

having been instructed to obtain the one-half of certificates of securities belonging to the National Education Association, had endeavored to do so, and the list so obtained was read by *Chairman Saunders*, a full list not having been obtained.

Chairman Saunders stated *Mr. Allan* had been instructed that upon completion of business in Minneapolis he return to Chicago, find out the value of all of these properties thru the Drexel Boulevard Bank of Chicago, trustee under the will, and to demand an accounting from *Mr. Greenacre* on all certificates. If necessary, to employ an attorney for a proper accounting. After discussion, it was moved by *Trustee Doudna*, seconded by *President Rosier*, that *Chairman Saunders* be authorized to take necessary steps to legally protect the interests of the National Education Association in the matter of the estate of *Marilla Zeroyda Parker*, and other questions that require legal advice, and, if necessary, to retain an attorney for the Association. The motion was carried.

The resolution in effect authorizing the borrowing of money was discussed, and it was moved by *Trustee Doudna*, seconded by *Trustee Wofford* that the chairman of the Board of Trustees and the secretary of the Association be authorized to make the necessary borrowing to carry forward the activities of the Association. The motion was carried.

The Charter of the Association having provided that the Board of Trustees shall elect a secretary of the Association for a period not to exceed four years in length, and to fix his compensation, and the term of *Secretary J. W. Crabtree* coming up for expiration September 1, 1933, this matter was discussed. After discussion, in view of the absence of *Trustee J. M. Gwinn*, this matter was held over for the summer meeting, with an informal understanding that the election of *Mr. Crabtree* would be made formal at that meeting, the details as to salary, etc., to be attended to at that time. Each member of the Board expressed approval of retaining *Mr. Crabtree*, including such an expression from *Trustee Gwinn*, by letter, which was read into the record.

There being no further business the meeting adjourned at 10:45 a.m.

JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*

REPORT OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Financial

The economic upheaval which the nation has experienced has had a marked effect upon the Association's finances. In the first place, in common with all other institutions our revenues have been greatly diminished.

In the second place, the Commercial National Bank of Washington, one of the two principal banks in which our funds were deposited, was on March 1, placed in the hands of a receiver, freezing for us a total of \$109,832.59 of which \$73,888.33 was on deposit in our operating account and \$35,944.26 was the income and principal of the permanent fund in custody of the Trust Department. There was also in the custody of the Trust Department securities to the par value of \$108,250.00. (See Exhibit E, Auditors' Report.) On April 1, your chairman made application to the receiver for the return of these securities. On April 15 they were delivered into the custody of the chairman and secretary of the Board of Trustees and have been placed in a lock box in the vault of the American Security and Trust Company. Prompt application was made for the return of the trust fund and claim has been filed for the operating fund. Counsel has been employed and all legal steps necessary have been taken to protect the interests of the Association. This tying-up of these funds has made it necessary for us to secure temporary loans and to make deferred payment obligations to our employees.

In the third place, our principal fund has been affected by the default of the St. Louis and San Francisco Railway Company, which is now undergoing a reorganization, and by the action of the State of Arkansas in refusing to pay the amount of interest due on its bonds. Court action is pending.

The assets of the Permanent Fund as of May 31, 1933, exclusive of the Parker estate, amount to \$771,329.91, an increase over 1932 of \$7,681.79. (See Exhibit D, Auditors' Report.)

Trust Fund—Principal Account—June 1, 1932-May 31, 1933

Cash overdrawn as shown in statement of May 31, 1932.....	\$4,306.66
Receipts:	
July 25, 1932—Transferred from Income Account to cover amount previously paid from Principal for interest on loans....	8,000.55
July 25, 1932—Transferred from Income Account for Reserve for Depreciation of Real Estate.....	8,000.00
Aug. 18, 1932—City of Clearwater Bonds paid.....	3,000.00
Life Memberships.....	24,285.09
Sale of Radio.....	2,500.00
Total Receipts.....	<u>\$41,478.98</u>

Disbursements:

Sept. 3, 1932—To Penn Mutual Life Ins. Co.—Curtail Payment on Mortgage.....	\$17,500.00
Oct. 14, 1932—To N. E. A.—Adjustments of Life Memberships heretofore deposited.....	10.00
Oct. 31, 1932—To Arthur Ballard, Inc., for installation of Oil Burner at 1201 16th Street.....	1,170.00
Oct. 31, 1932—To Engineering Management, Inc., for Specifications Oil Burner.....	70.20
Nov. 3, 1932—To George Wyne, Waterproofing boiler-room	219.91
May 31, 1932—Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company Curtail Payment on Mortgage.....	7,000.00
May 31, 1933—Balance Cash on Hand in Commercial National Bank.....	15,170.89
Balance Cash on Hand in National Metropolitan Bank.....	337.98
	<u>15,508.87</u>
	<u>\$41,478.98</u>

Trust Fund Income Account—June 1, 1932-May 31, 1933

Balance on Hand as shown in Statement of May 31, 1932.....	\$47,355.16
Receipts:	

Int. from Bonds:

Columbus Co. S. C. due Jul. 1932.....	\$125.00
Columbus Co. S. C. due Jan. 1933.....	125.00
Chic. Ind. & S. W. due Jul. 1932.....	200.00

Chic. Ind. & S. W.	due Jan. 1933.....	\$200.00	
St. Louis-San Fran.	due Jul. 1932.....	105.00	
Terminal R. R. Assn.	due Jul. 1932.....	300.00	
Terminal R. R. Assn.	due Jan. 1933.....	300.00	
County of Aiken	due Aug. 1932.....	112.50	
County of Aiken	due Feb. 1933.....	112.50	
City of Monessen	due Aug. 1932.....	112.50	
City of Monessen	due Feb. 1933.....	112.50	
City of Clearwater	due Aug. 1932.....	75.00	
State of Arkansas	due Sept. 1932.....	700.00	
Atlantic Coast Line	due Sept. 1932.....	200.00	
Atlantic Coast Line	due Mar. 1933.....	200.00	
Manhattan Railway	due Oct. 1932.....	80.00	
B. & O. R. R.	due Nov. 1932.....	400.00	
B. & O. R. R.	due May 1933.....	400.00	
Newport News City	due Dec. 1932.....	22.50	
Elementary School Principals:			
Newport News City	due Dec. 1932.....	137.50	
			\$4,020.00
Rents from 1201 16th Street N. W.:			
For quarter ended Aug. 31, 1932.....		10,750.00	
For quarter ended Nov. 30, 1932.....		10,750.00	
For quarter ended Feb. 28, 1932.....		10,750.00	
For quarter ended May 31, 1932.....		10,750.00	
			43,000.00
Interest on savings account to Sept. 30, 1932.....		343.74	
Interest on deferred payment of radio.....		4.31	
Interest on savings account to Feb. 27, 1933.....		267.24	
			615.29
			\$47,635.29
			\$94,990.45

Disbursements:

Transferred to Principal Account to cover amount previously paid from principal for interest on loans.....	\$8,000.55
Transferred to Principal Account for reserve for depreciation on Real Estate.....	8,000.00
Transferred to Regular Account of N. E. A.....	31,354.61
Transferred to Elem. School Principals Fund to cover Interest to Sept. 30, 1932.....	10.07
Transferred to Educational Research Fund to cover interest to Sept. 30, 1932.....	7.50
To Commercial National Bank of Washington, loan paid..	10,000.00
To Commercial National Bank of Washington, interest on loan	92.33
To Penn Mutual Life Ins. Co.—Interest.....	5,400.00
Exchange Charges on City of Clearwater Bonds.....	1.50
Exchange Charges on Manhattan Rwy. Coupons.....	.42
Tax on Checks.....	.10
Penn Mutual Life Ins. Co.—Interest.....	4,875.00
E. Quincy Smith—Commission on Renewal.....	2,950.00
To N. E. A.....	3,525.00
Balance on Hand in Commercial National Bank....	20,773.37
	\$94,990.45

Parker Estate

The estate left to the Association by will of Marilla Z. Parker is in process of settlement and in due time will be entered upon the books of the Association. The present approximate value of these properties is \$11,000.00. (See Exhibit F, Auditors Report.)

Building

During the present fiscal year we have curtailed our loan on the building by the sum of \$24,500.00 reducing the loan to \$155,500.00. This loan was renewed on March 5, 1933, for a term of ten years at 6 percent until the loan is reduced to \$100,000.00 when the rate will automatically become 5½ percent.

Our properties are in excellent shape. Our financial situation is sound. The ability, untiring energy, zeal and devotion of our secretary, J. W. Crabtree, and our business manager, H. A. Allan, are in large measure responsible for our favorable position.

Board of Trustees	{	JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, <i>Chairman</i> KATE V. WOFFORD, <i>Secretary</i> J. M. GWINN E. G. DOUDNA JOSEPH ROSIER, <i>President</i>
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REPORT OF AUDITORS

WAYNE KENDRICK & COMPANY

CERTIFIED PUBLIC ACCOUNTANTS

RUST BUILDING, WASHINGTON, D. C.

June 12, 1933.

Dr. Joseph Rosier, President
National Education Association of the United States
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR:

In accordance with instructions received, we have examined the books and records of account of the National Education Association of the United States for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1933, and submit herewith our report consisting of the following exhibits, schedules, and comments:

Exhibit "A"—Statement of assets and liabilities as at May 31, 1933.

Exhibit "B"—Condensed comparative statement of income and expenses for the fiscal years ended May 31, 1933 and 1932.

Exhibit "C"—Income and expenses for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1933.

Exhibit "D"—Assets of permanent funds as at May 31, 1933.

Exhibit "E"—Securities of permanent funds on hand as at May 31, 1933.

Exhibit "F"—List of properties owned, secured thru adjustment of the estate of Marilla Z. Parker, as at May 31, 1933

Comments

Our examination consisted principally of the verification of assets and liabilities of the Association as at May 31, 1933, but we made sufficient tests of income and expense accounts substantially to determine the accuracy thereof.

Cash in banks was verified by a comparison of all checks paid by the banks with the amounts entered in the books of account. We also inspected the checks as to payees and endorsements. All bank accounts were verified by direct correspondence with the depositories, and where statements were furnished by the banks the balances shown thereon were reconciled to the amounts shown by the books. Cash on hand was verified by actual count.

Accounts receivable, \$11,705.19, were verified by inspection of the individual accounts in the ledger. The greater portion of these accounts are for current advertising, and such accounts were also verified thru inquiries in the business manager's office. After a careful check of these accounts, we believe the Reserve for Doubtful Accounts is sufficient to take care of any loss from this source.

Time Checks Receivable, \$3,510.81, were verified by inspection of the checks on hand. Such checks as were returned by the banks unpaid at maturity date are included in the "Protested Checks" account.

Stamped Envelopes and Cards, \$632.12, and Office Supplies, \$382.32, were inventoried by your staff, and an inspection was subsequently made by us to determine the reasonable accuracy thereof. We also checked the calculations and extensions.

Protested Checks, \$3,984.55, were examined by us insofar as possible. The majority of checks returned unpaid prior to February, 1932, however, had been sent to the makers, and the only evidence available for our inspection was the letter of transmittal to the makers of such checks. The Reserve for Protested Checks was increased \$500.00 as at May 31, 1933, to provide for estimated further loss from this source.

Office Furniture and Fixtures, \$46,952.04. We verified the additions made during the year to this account by inspection of purchase invoices. A physical inventory was made by your employees, which we examined and compared to the inventory at May 31, 1932. The depreciation deduction of \$5,855.77 includes depreciation on \$13,144.01 equipment, heretofore included in the building cost. This equipment has been segregated from the building cost so as to take the proper depreciation applicable thereto. It is our understanding that it is the intention of the Association to take over this furniture from the "Permanent Fund" at a future date. While the depreciation factor is recognized on the building, none has been deducted for the fiscal year 1933, as it would be necessary to set aside cash or other assets to increase the "Depreciation Fund." We agree with your Association that it is better to use such funds to pay off the mortgage, thereby reducing the interest charge. After this debt has been paid, the depreciation deduction may then be resumed.

Notes Receivable—Life Members, \$206,326.50, were examined by us and found to be in agreement with the books. We found that payments aggregating \$37,000.00 on such notes were in arrears. These notes are non-negotiable. An unascertainable amount of the above payments has been extended at the request of the makers.

Investments in Securities were verified by actual inspection of stock certificates or bonds. It will be noted from Exhibit "D" that a full year's interest was not received on the following items:

State of Arkansas Toll Bridge, St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad, Manhattan Railway Company.

State of Arkansas interest coupons, which became due March 1, 1933, have not been paid, as the State is attempting to issue refunding bonds bearing a lower rate of interest. The St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad paid interest due July 1, 1932, but defaulted on the payment which became due January 1, 1933. Manhattan Railway Company interest due October 1, 1932, was paid. It is our understanding that the Manhattan Railway Co. has sixty days from due date in which to pay the interest, which right was exercised when the April 1, 1933, coupon became due. This right expired May 31, 1933, and the bond interest is still unpaid.

Newport News City Street Improvement Bonds were purchased for the Department of Superintendence between interest dates, and at the time of purchase, \$135.45

interest was accrued thereon. The interest shown in Exhibit "E" is, therefore, shown "net" after deducting the above amount.

In addition to the foregoing, interest due June 1, 1932, on City of Newport News bonds was included in the auditor's report for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1932, leaving but one interest payment due within the fiscal year 1933 on these bonds, which was collected December 1, 1932.

The interest on South Carolina Highway certificates shows an amount in excess of a full year's interest, as the coupons due February 1 and August 1, 1931, were not collected until July 1932.

It will be noted from Exhibit "A" that the total net equity value of the Permanent Fund Assets was \$771,329.91, at May 31, 1933, as compared to \$763,648.12, at May 31, 1932. The increase is accounted for as follows:

Gross Value at May 31, 1932, as shown by prior audit report.....	\$943,648.12
Less: First Trust Payable—May 31, 1932.....	180,000.00
Net Equity shown above at May 31, 1932.....	<u>\$763,648.12</u>
<i>To which Add:</i>	
Increase in Life Memberships.....	11,817.59
Amount Included in Trustee Report for 1932, not on General Books until 1933.....	14.00
Increase in Elementary School Principals Account—Net.....	10.07
<i>Department of Superintendence</i>	
Interest on Securities—Net.....	475.13
Transferred from National Education Association December, 1932....	1,265.00
	<u>\$777,229.91</u>
<i>From which Deduct:</i>	
Loss on Sale of Radio Broadcasting Equipment.....	5,900.00
NET EQUITY MAY 31, 1933—As shown by Exhibit "A".....	<u><u>\$771,329.91</u></u>

Vouchers Payable, \$36,502.84, were verified by examination of the individual accounts, and checking the payments for the month of May, 1933, to make a test as to whether any of such vouchers had been paid. The Business Division also shows there are no purchases made which were not entered on the books.

Deferred Payroll, \$13,465.56, was verified by inspection of cash records showing payments, and by checking the total unpaid to records in the business manager's office. This amount represents part of the regular payroll deferred on account of the Commercial National Bank going into receivership. The same is shown as a liability pending final disposition thereof.

Amounts due to Associated Departments totaling \$32,523.92 were accepted as shown by the books, except the Elementary School Principals, American Educational Research, and Department of Superintendence funds, which were verified by checking the records kept by these Departments. The total shown above and on Exhibit "A" consists of the following:

Department of Superintendence	\$21,903.73
Department of Rural Education	983.49
Department of Lip Reading.....	29.08
Department of Elementary School Principals	3,999.02
Department of Adult Education	7.69
Department of American Educational Research	5,385.78

Department of Secondary School Principals	\$141.29
Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics	73.84
	<u>\$32,523.92</u>

The first trust mortgage payable, \$155,500.00, against the real estate and building at 16th and M Streets, was verified by direct correspondence with the holder of the mortgage. This note was curtailed \$24,500.00 during the year, reducing it from \$180,000.00 to \$155,500.00, as shown above.

Your Association owns certain personal and real property received from the Estate of Marilla Z. Parker, as shown in Exhibit "F" of this report. These assets have not yet been entered on the books, due to the doubtful value of some of the securities. We understand they will be appraised and entered on the books in the near future. In addition to the property listed in Exhibit "F," we also examined the following, which were included in the assets received from this estate:

500 Shares California Pure Food Company.

525 Shares Norwegian American Copper and Smelting Company.

2 Shares New York and St. Louis Mining and Manufacturing Co.

We are informed these shares have no value.

Budget Comparison

The total of expenditures allowed in the budget for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1933, was \$537,231.78, as compared to the actual expenditures, amounting to \$444,250.08. A comparative summary of budgeted and actual expenditures, showing the amounts under or over the budgeted figures, is shown below:

	<i>Actual Expenditure</i>	<i>Budget Allowance</i>	<i>Under or Over</i>
Board of Trustees.....	\$784.02	\$700.00	\$84.02
Board of Directors.....	9,822.19	9,000.00	822.19
Executive Committee.....	3,246.12	2,800.00	446.12
Contingent Fund for President—1932-33 and Joint Emergency Commission.....	1,636.12	800.00	836.12
General Secretary's Office and Division of Accounts	30,438.73	35,400.00	4,961.27
Division of Legislation (Field).....	12,632.92	13,922.00	1,289.08
Division of Business.....	16,157.68	19,300.00	3,142.32
Division of Publications.....	39,659.15	45,875.00	6,215.85
Division of Research.....	55,406.58	62,100.00	6,693.42
Division of Classroom Service.....	7,306.38	8,300.00	993.62
Division of Administrative Service.....	8,631.42	9,976.00	1,344.58
Division of Records & Membership.....	27,093.51	34,700.00	7,606.49
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership...	27,499.74	36,000.00	8,500.26
Physical Plant—Headquarters.....	54,529.44	55,850.00	1,320.56
Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	558.95	2,000.00	1,441.05
General Office Expense.....	7,170.20	7,833.78	663.58
Annual Conventions.....	4,560.50	7,150.00	2,589.50
Operation of Exhibits.....	7,740.92	13,000.00	5,259.08
Payment to Department of Superintendence....	9,061.75	13,000.00	3,938.25
N. E. A. Journal.....	74,844.82	94,400.00	19,555.18
Volume of Proceedings—1932.....	8,689.37	9,500.00	810.63
Publications and Reports for General Sale.....	386.45	1,500.00	1,113.55
Research Bulletin.....	4,594.98	8,000.00	3,405.02

	<i>Actual Expenditure</i>	<i>Budget Allowance</i>	<i>Under or Over</i>
Special Appropriations.....	\$14,664.24	{ \$24,375.00 }	\$10,010.76
Association Membership Fees.....	700.00	300.00 }
Financing of Delegates.....	7,101.75	700.00
Retirement Annuities and Insurance.....	9,220.23	10,000.00	2,898.25
Miscellaneous	111.92	9,550.00	329.77
		111.92
Emergency Fund.....	{ 1,500.00 }	
		{ —300.00 }	1,200.00
	<u>\$444,250.08</u>	<u>\$537,231.78</u>	<u>\$92,981.70</u>

It is remarkable that the actual expenditures were reduced \$92,981.70 below the budget for the year, and that the reduction in expense from the fiscal year 1932 was \$106,029.18, as shown by Exhibit "B."

It is noted that no cash value for the Retirement Annuities Insurance Policies owned by the Association on the lives of its employees is carried on the books. The cash surrender value of all policies issued under this insurance plan at May 31, 1933, aggregates \$79,414.21, of which approximately \$48,165.99 belongs to employees and \$31,248.22 belongs to your Association. We believe that proper authority should be issued for placing this asset on the books.

In connection with income from Commercial Exhibits, it should be noted that there is no expense in connection with \$8,701.00 income received from the Chicago Exhibit. The expense in connection therewith will be shown in the ensuing year. Part of the income and expenses of the Atlantic City Exhibit was included in the 1932 report. Due to this overlapping, such income is not comparable to previous years.

Prepaid subscriptions, memberships, income from Chicago Exhibit, etc., have been treated as income at the time received. Likewise such items as costs of unprinted journals, prepaid insurance, prepaid commission on renewal of first trust mortgage, etc., have been treated as expenses at the time the invoices were received.

No commission has been provided for trust officer for the handling of trust funds, as this is also considered as expense at the time paid.

The following is a summary of the Trust Officer Income Account for the current year:

Income		
Interest on Deposits.....	\$610.98	
Interest on Deferred Payment of Radio.....	4.31	
Interest on Bonds.....	3,882.50	
Rent Charged to General Headquarters.....	43,000.00	
Expenses		
Commission on Renewal of First Trust Loan.....	\$2,950.00	
Interest on Mortgage.....	10,275.00	
Interest on Loan—Commercial National Bank.....	92.33	
Exchange Charges on Bond Coupons.....	1.92	
Tax on Checks.....	.10	
Interest to September 30, 1932, due Elementary School Principal and Educational Research Funds.....	17.57	
		<u>13,336.92</u>
Net Income for Fiscal Year Ended May 31, 1933.....		\$34,160.87
Add:		
Interest received by Trust Officer for Elementary School Principal—Not Transferred.....		137.50
Income as Shown by Trust Officer's Report.....		<u>\$34,298.37</u>

The interest received for the Elementary School Principals' Account has not been transferred due to the fact that the Commercial National Bank was closed before such transfer was made. We understand that an interest adjustment will be made at a later date.

Subject to the foregoing comments, we hereby certify that in our opinion, the attached Balance Sheet, marked Exhibit "A," reflects the true financial position of the National Education Association as at May 31, 1933.

Respectfully submitted,

WAYNE KENDRICK & COMPANY,
By T. DELOS PAXMAN,
Certified Public Accountant.

Statement of Assets and Liabilities as at May 31, 1933

EXHIBIT "A"

Assets

General Accounts

Cash—On hand and on deposit—National Metropolitan
Bank

Petty cash.....	\$40.00
Secretary's Fund—Net.....	30,738.35
Regular account.....	11,438.15

\$42,216.50

Cash at Commercial National Bank (in receivership).....

73,888.33

Amount due from permanent fund Trust Officer—

Commercial National Bank (in receivership).....

20,773.37

Accounts receivable..... \$11,705.19

Less: Reserve for doubtful accounts..... 2,500.00

9,205.19

Time checks receivable.....

3,510.81

Stamped envelopes and cards.....

632.12

Volumes of Proceedings and Publications.....

500.00

Office furniture and fixtures..... \$46,952.04

Less: Reserve for depreciation..... 25,386.60

21,565.44

Protested checks..... \$3,984.55

Less: Reserve for uncollectibles..... 1,700.00

2,284.55

Travel advances.....

722.52

Office supplies.....

382.32

Permanent Funds—Including \$18,052.21 cash in Commercial National
Bank (in receivership)—from Exhibit "D".....

771,329.91

Total Assets.....

\$947,011.06

Liabilities and Net Worth

Liabilities

Vouchers payable—Trade creditors..... \$36,502.84

Deferred payroll—See comments..... 13,465.56

Due to associated departments..... 32,523.92

\$82,492.32

First Trust payable (Deducted from assets contra)		
Net Worth—Represented by:		
Permanent Funds		
General Fund.....	\$749,666.62	
Elementary School Principals' Fund.....	5,855.77	
Department of Superintendence—Educational Re- search Fund.....	15,807.52	
		771,329.91
Surplus—June 1, 1932.....	\$101,581.28	
Deduct:		
Net expenses in excess of income for fiscal year ended May 31, 1933—from Exhibit "B".....	8,392.45	
		93,188.83
Total Liabilities and Net Worth.....		\$947,011.06

Condensed Comparative Statement of Income and Expenses For
the Fiscal Years Ended May 31, 1933 and 1932

EXHIBIT "B"

Income	Fiscal Year Ended May 31		Decrease or Increase
	1933	1932	
Memberships from Secretary's Office...	\$157,515.28	\$191,898.63	\$34,383.35
N. E. A. Journal—Subscriptions, Adver- tising, etc.....	188,182.42	239,964.69	51,782.27
Sales of Proceedings.....	386.91	429.31	42.40
Sales of Special Reports.....	3,757.45	5,845.46	2,088.01
Commercial Exhibits.....	32,058.50	46,110.00	14,051.50
Research Bulletins.....	6,311.61	7,705.84	1,394.23
Honorariums	1,647.04	2,447.59	800.55
Rentals	9,153.00	8,725.90	427.10
Interest and Discount Earned.....	1,045.44	3,375.24	2,329.80
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, etc....	1,253.45	1,816.02	562.57
American Education Week—Material Sales	3,311.62	1,992.62	1,319.00
Permanent Fund—Gross Income.....	47,635.29	48,077.14	441.85
Carnegie Foundation Contribution.....	2,375.00	2,375.00
Sundry Income.....	173.86	301.02	127.16
Total Income.....	\$454,806.87	\$558,689.46	\$103,882.59
Expenses			
Board of Trustees.....Schedule "B-1"	\$784.02	\$941.47	\$157.45
Board of Directors.....Schedule "B-1"	9,822.19	14,234.68	4,412.49
Executive Committee....Schedule "B-2"	4,882.24	3,916.03	966.21
General Headquarters..Schedule "B-3"	7,170.20	8,358.67	1,188.47
Physical Plant.....Schedule "B-4"	54,529.44	58,662.63	4,133.19
Institutional Expense....Schedule "B-5"	109,878.79	159,749.88	49,871.09
Special Appropriations..Schedule "B-6"	14,664.24	15,391.06	726.82
Association's Membership Fees Schedule "B-6"	700.00	700.00

Honorariums	\$1,647.04
Rentals	9,153.00
Interest and Discount Earned.....	1,045.44
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, etc.....	1,253.45
American Education Week Material Sales.....	3,311.62
Interest on Bonds—Permanent Fund.....	4,020.00
Interest on Deposits and Miscellaneous Permanent Fund.....	615.29
Rent—Permanent Fund.....	43,000.00
Carnegie Foundation—Contribution.....	2,375.00
Sundry Income.....	173.86
Total Income.....	<u>\$454,806.87</u>

Expenses

Schedule "B-1"

Board of Trustees.....	\$784.02	
Board of Directors.....	9,822.19	
	<u> </u>	\$10,606.21

Schedule "B-2"

Executive Committee Expenses

President 1932-1933.....	\$741.97	
President's Contingent Fund 1932-1933 and Joint Emergency Commission.....	1,636.12	
President 1931-1932.....	873.57	
President's Contingent Fund 1931-1932.....	599.33	
First Vicepresident 1932-1933.....	219.43	
Treasurer	222.83	
Chairman—Board of Trustees.....	402.17	
Member by Election.....	186.82	
	<u> </u>	4,882.24

Schedule "B-3"

General Headquarters Expense

Auditing Association Accounts.....	\$850.00
Express and Freight.....	441.47
General Expense.....	408.64
Government Tax on Checks.....	113.64
Insurance	605.90
Interest and Discount Allowed.....	877.90
Postage—Miscellaneous Reports.....	172.76
Refunds from Overpayments.....
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	414.86
Surety Bonds.....	252.50
Telephone Service.....	3,085.98

\$7,223.65

Less: Refunds from Overpayments..... 53.45

7,170.20*Schedule "B-4"*

Physical Plant Expense

Rents	\$43,000.00	
Light and Power.....	1,696.26	
Heat	1,212.48	
Janitor Service.....	5,985.40	
Maintenance	2,635.30	
	<u> </u>	54,529.44

Institutional Expenses *Schedule "B-5"*

Annual Convention

Department Expense.....	\$161.48	
Registration Bureau.....	408.37	
Stenographers and Typists.....	519.75	
Publicity	364.97	
Printing	1,583.05	
Express and Freight.....	224.74	
Telephone and Telegrams.....	15.97	
General Program.....	758.55	
Representative Assembly Expense.....	523.62	
		\$4,560.50

Operation of Exhibits

Cost of Operation.....	\$7,740.92	
Portion of Net Income Paid to Department of Superintendence.....	9,061.75	
		16,802.67

Printing and Distribution

N. E. A. Journal.....	\$74,844.82	
Volume of Proceedings.....	8,689.37	
Publication and Reports.....	386.45	
Research Bulletin.....	4,594.98	
		88,515.62

\$109,878.79

Schedule "B-6"

Special Appropriations

Commission on Enrichment of Adult Life.....	\$.....
Commission on Economic Status of Teacher.....	500.00
Committee of 100 on Retirement.....	417.08
Committee on Social Economic Objectives of America.....	955.72
Committee on Tenure.....	164.89

Health Education

Department of School Health and Physical Education.....	\$157.34
Joint Commission on Health Problems in Education	155.38

312.72

Legislative Commission.....	391.17
Department of American Educational Research.....	1,000.00
Department of Adult Education.....	500.00
Department of Classroom Teachers.....	7,821.01
Department of Secondary Education.....	1,500.00
National Council on Education.....	309.30
Emergency Fund.....	800.00

\$14,671.89

Less: Commission on Enrichment of Adult Life
Credit Balance.....

7.65

\$14,664.24

American Council on Education.....	100.00
United States Chamber of Commerce.....	100.00
World Federation of Education Associations.....	500.00

\$15,364.24

Financing of Delegates.....	7,101.75
Life Annuities and Insurance.....	9,220.23

*Schedule "B-7"*General Secretary's Office and
Division of Accounts

General Secretary's Office

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$19,840.53	
Traveling Expense	739.78	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	280.50	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	866.56	
Telegrams and Telephone Toll Charges	192.31	
		<u>\$21,919.68</u>

Division of Accounts

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$7,666.26	
Traveling Expense.....	199.85	
Stationery and Supplies.....	287.59	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	365.35	
		<u>8,519.05</u>

\$30,438.73

Schedule "B-8"

Division of Legislation

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$11,503.99	
Traveling Expense.....	836.89	
Stationery and Supplies.....	72.07	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	169.08	
Telegrams	50.89	
		<u>12,632.92</u>

Schedule "B-9"

Division of Business

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$14,664.56	
Traveling Expense.....	885.89	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	83.12	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	337.13	
Telegrams	42.33	
Advertising Expense.....	128.59	
Typing Section.....	11.13	
Mailing Section—Postage.....	65.63	
Multigraph Section.....	27.84	
		<u>\$16,246.22</u>
Less: Credit on Mailing Supplies and Clerical....	88.54	
		<u>16,157.68</u>

Schedule "B-10"

Division of Publications

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$33,455.15	
Traveling Expense.....	1,335.96	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	588.75	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	1,026.04	
Telegrams	149.07	
American Education Week.....	2,033.97	
Reprints	788.04	
Photos and Prints.....	282.17	
		<u>39,659.15</u>

Schedule "B-11"

Division of Research

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$50,544.67	
Traveling Expense.....	1,295.11	

Stationery and Office Supplies.....	\$763.32	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	1,253.35	
Telegrams	65.62	
Special Charts, Tables, etc.....	1,120.56	
Books and Pamphlets—Library.....	363.95	
		<hr/>
		\$55,406.58

Schedule "B-12"

Division of Classroom Service		
Salaries and Clerical Service.....	\$6,873.71	
Traveling Expense.....	237.62	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	57.21	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	132.57	
Telegrams	5.27	
		<hr/>
		7,306.38

Schedule "B-13"

Division of Administrative Service		
Salaries and Clerical Service.....	\$8,411.70	
Traveling Expense.....	120.69	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	82.83	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	16.20	
		<hr/>
		8,631.42

Schedule "B-14"

Division of Records and Memberships		
Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$25,667.81	
Traveling Expense.....	613.97	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	106.91	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	278.31	
Telegrams	9.07	
Addressograph	417.44	
		<hr/>
	\$27,093.51	
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership.....	27,499.74	
		<hr/>
		54,593.25

Schedule "B-15"

Permanent Funds Charges		
Transferred to Elementary School Principals' Fund..	\$10.07	
Transfer to Educational Research Fund (To cover Interest to September 30, 1932)	7.50	
Interest on Loan to Commercial National Bank.....	92.33	
Exchange Charges and Tax on Checks.....	2.02	
		<hr/>
		111.92

Total Expenses.....	\$443,691.13
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Net Income Before Deduction for Interest and Commission on Mortgage, Depreciation, and Provision for Protested Checks.....	\$11,115.74
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Assets of Permanent Funds As at May 31, 1933*EXHIBIT "D"*

General Fund	
Cash at Commercial National Bank (In Receivership)	\$15,170.89
Cash at National Metropolitan Bank.....	337.98
Notes Receivable—Life Members.....	206,326.50
Investments in Securities (Book Value)—Exhibit "E".	107,683.18

Office Equipment	\$13,144.01	
Real Estate, Building and Improvements..	\$570,504.06	
Less Reserve for Depreciation.....	8,000.00	
	<u>\$562,504.06</u>	
Less: First Trust Payable.....	155,500.00	
	<u>407,004.06</u>	\$749,666.62
Elementary School Principals' Fund		
Cash at Commercial National Bank (In Receivership).	\$855.77	
Investment in Securities (Book Value)—Exhibit "E".	5,000.00	
	<u>5,855.77</u>	
Department of Superintendence Educational Research Fund		
Cash at Commercial National Bank (In Receivership).	\$2,025.55	
Investment in Securities (Book Value)—Exhibit "E".	13,781.97	
	<u>15,807.52</u>	
Total Permanent Funds—To Exhibit "A".....		<u>\$771,329.91</u>

Securities of Permanent Funds on Hand As at May 31, 1933

EXHIBIT "E"			Interest collected for fiscal year
	Par value	Book value	1932-1933
General Fund			
Municipal Bonds			
City of Monessen, Pa., 4½% Due Aug. 1, 1951.....	\$5,000.00	\$5,206.39	\$225.00
State of Arkansas Toll Bridge, 5% Due Sept. 1, 1950.....	5,000.00	5,166.51	125.00
State of Arkansas Toll Bridge, 5% Due Sept. 1, 1944.....	23,000.00	23,558.90	575.00
County of Columbus, N. C., 5% Due July 1, 1954.....	5,000.00	5,470.75	250.00
City of Aiken, S. C., 4½% Due Feb. 1, 1939	5,000.00	5,064.38	225.00
City of Newport News, 4½% Due June 1, 1948.....	1,000.00	892.50	22.50
Railroad Bonds			
St. Louis and San Francisco R. R. Co., Prior Lien, 4% Due July 1, 1950.....	5,250.00	4,331.25	105.00
Atlantic Coast Line R. R. Co., 1st Cons. Mtge., 4% Due July 1, 1952.....	10,000.00	9,600.00	400.00
Manhattan Railway Co. Cons. Mtge., 4% Due April 1, 1990.....	4,000.00	3,900.00	80.00
Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. (Pittsburgh, Lake Erie, and West Virginia System) Ref. Mtge., 4% Due November 1, 1941	20,000.00	19,942.50	800.00
Chicago, Indiana and Southern Ry. Co., 4% Due January 1, 1956.....	10,000.00	9,500.00	400.00

	<i>Par value</i>	<i>Book value</i>	<i>Interest collected for fiscal year 1932-1933</i>
Terminal Railroad Association of St. Louis, Gen. Mtge., 4% Due January 1, 1953.....	\$15,000.00	\$15,050.00	\$600.00
Add: Interest Received on \$3,000.00 Clear- water, Kansas, 5% Bonds Redeemed August 1, 1932.....			75.00
Total General Fund.....	\$108,250.00	\$107,683.18	
Elementary School Principals' Fund Newport News City Street Improvement and Sewerage Cons. 5½% Due December 1, 1960	\$5,000.00	\$5,000.00	137.50
Total Income from Permanent Fund Investment.....			\$4,020.00
Department of Superintendence Educational Re- search Fund			
U. S. Fourth Liberty, 4¼% Due 1933-1938.	\$400.00	\$419.69	\$17.02
South Carolina Highway Certificate of In- debtedness, 4¾% Due December 1, 1946.	2,000.00	2,077.28	142.50
Newport News City Street Improvement and Sewerage Cons., 5½% Due Decem- ber 1, 1960.....	11,000.00	11,285.00	167.05
Interest on \$6,000.00 New Orleans, 4½% Due Oct. 1, 1932.....	Redeemed		135.00
Total Superintendence Educational Research Fund	\$13,400.00	\$13,781.97	\$461.57
Total Securities as shown by Exhibit "D"	\$126,650.00	\$126,465.15	\$4,481.57

List of Properties Owned, Secured Thru Adjustment of the Estate of Marilla Z. Parker As at May 31, 1933

EXHIBIT "F"

BONDS

\$1,000.00*	Charles B. Burkhardt, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 39, due 1/9/32, with coupon payable 1/9/32
1,000.00	Hisgen-Guettrich, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 31, due 10/15/33, with coupon payable 10/15/32
500.00*	Vito and Ceresa Marchetti, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 3, due 4/26/33, with coupon payable 10/26/32
1,000.00*	Vito and Ceresa Marchetti, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 2, due 4/26/33, with coupon payable 10/26/32
1,000.00*	Richard and Gisela Rosenheim, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 28, due 10/20/32, with coupon payable 4/20/32

(*) Deposited at Drexel State Bank of Chicago for collection April 26, 1933.

1,000.00	John J. Duffin, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 30, due 2/28/34, with coupon payable 8/28/32
1,000.00	208 South LaSalle Street Building, 5½%, First Mortgage Bond, M-1834, due 11/1/58, with coupon payable 11/1/32
1,000.00	Pacific Gas and Electric Company, 4½%, First Mortgage Bond, M-27816, due 6/1/60, with coupon payable 12/1/32
500.00	City of Park Ridge Improvement Bond, 6%, M-180, due 12/15/31
1,000.00	Allie M. Anderson, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 32, due 5/20/36, with coupon payable 11/20/32
1,000.00	B. Markwald, 6%, First Mortgage Note, No. 8, due 10/26/34, with coupon payable 10/26/32
1,000.00**	Albert Hokanson, Note Holder's Agreement on 6% mortgage note, due 6/16/32

STOCKS

5 Shares	American Can Company Preferred Stock, 7% @ \$100.00
20 Shares	International Textbook Company Capital Stock (no par value)
5 Shares	International Educational Publishing Company Common Stock @ \$50.00
10 Shares	International Educational Publishing Company Preferred Stock 7%, @ \$50.00

LAND

One-half	Ownership of 192-8/10 acres land, Burleigh County, North Dakota, Occupied by Elmer Perry, tenant
One-half	Ownership of Contract of Purchase for 320 acres land, Blaine County, Montana
One-half	Ownership of 160 acres land, Williams County, North Dakota, W. W. Wirtz, tenant

CASH

\$50.00	Received from sale of one-half of one \$100 share Bank of Brodhead
\$1,049.37	In possession of I. T. Greenacre, Attorney, as amount of one-half of cash paid by Trustee to Attorney

REPORT OF TREASURER

Wayne Kendrick & Company
 Certified Public Accountants
 Rust Building
 Washington, D. C.

June 14, 1933.

Dr. Joseph Rosier, President
 National Education Association of the United States
 Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIR:

We have examined the records of the Secretary of your Association for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1933, and have checked the cash transactions shown therein to the records of the Treasurer, and have found them in agreement. We hereby certify that the attached Treasurer's Report correctly reflects the cash transactions for the fiscal year ended, and the cash balance at the close of business May 31, 1933. Included in cash balance as at May 31, 1933, is \$73,888.32 on deposit with the Commercial National Bank now in receivership.

Respectfully submitted,

WAYNE KENDRICK & COMPANY,
 By T. DELOS PAXMAN,
Certified Public Accountant.

(**) Mortgage Bond deposited at Drexel State Bank of Chicago for collection, January 6, 1933.

Report of Treasurer For the Fiscal Year Ended May 31, 1933

Cash on Hand May 31, 1932..... \$84,475.22

Receipts

Thru Secretary's Office

Membership (\$2.00)	\$143,510.28
Membership (\$5.00)	9,812.00
Membership (Affiliation)	4,193.00
N. E. A. <i>Journal</i> (Subscription)	147,014.12
<i>Research Bulletin</i> (Subscription) ...	3,729.00
	<hr/>
	\$308,258.40

Advertising Income	41,111.49
Exhibits—Atlantic City	\$1,130.00
Exhibits—Minneapolis	22,227.50
Exhibits—Chicago	8,701.00
	<hr/>
	32,058.50

Miscellaneous Income

American Education Week	\$3,311.62
Cash Sales—Reports and Pamphlets.	1,253.45
Honorariums—Field Work	1,647.04
Interest and Discount earned	1,045.44
Rentals Received	9,153.00
Sales of Copies	2,373.78
Sale of Journal, Mats, etc.	56.81
Sale of Proceedings	386.91
Sale of Special Reports	3,757.45
Special Investigations	208.83
Sundry Income, Exchange, etc.	2,548.86
	<hr/>
	25,743.19
	<hr/>
	\$407,171.58

Cash received from Trustee..... 45,188.19

	<i>Balance</i>	<i>Balance</i>
	<i>May 31, 1932</i>	<i>May 31, 1933</i>

For Associated Departments

Department of Superintendence....	\$16,113.36	\$21,903.73
Department of Rural Education....	293.18	983.49
Department of Lip Reading	141.16	29.08
Department of Elementary School Principals	2,323.22	3,999.02
Department of Adult Education....	601.69	7.69
Department of American Educational Research	4,610.04	5,385.78
Department of Secondary School Principals	32.00	141.29
Department of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics....	298.20	73.84
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$24,412.85	\$32,523.92
		8,111.07

Carried Forward..... \$460,470.84 \$84,475.22

Accounts Receivable (Gross)	13,191.40	11,705.19	1,486.21
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Stamped Envelopes.....	\$906.90	\$632.12	\$274.78
Stationery and Supplies.....	737.74	382.32	355.42
Increase in Vouchers Payable.....	32,046.43	49,968.40	17,921.97
			<u>\$480,509.22</u>
Total Receipts.....			\$564,984.44

Disbursements

Expenses

Board of Trustees.....	\$784.02	
Board of Directors.....	9,822.19	
Executive Committee.....	3,246.12	
Contingent Fund for President—1932-33.....	93.72	
Joint Emergency Commission.....	1,542.40	
General Secretary's Office and Division of Ac- counts	30,438.73	
Division of Legislation (Field).....	12,632.92	
Division of Business.....	16,157.68	
Division of Publications.....	39,659.15	
Division of Research.....	55,406.58	
Division of Classroom Service.....	7,306.38	
Division of Administrative Service.....	8,631.42	
Division of Records and Membership.....	27,093.51	
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership....	27,499.74	
Physical Plant—Headquarters.....	54,529.44	
General Office Expense.....	7,170.20	
Annual Conventions.....	4,560.50	
Operation of Exhibits.....	7,740.92	
Payment to Department of Superintendence....	9,061.75	
N. E. A. Journal.....	74,844.82	
Volume of Proceedings—1932.....	8,689.37	
Publications and Reports for General Sale.....	386.45	
Research Bulletin.....	4,594.98	
Special Appropriations.....	14,664.24	
Association's Membership Fees.....	700.00	
Financing of Delegates.....	7,101.75	
Retirement Annuities and Insurance.....	9,220.23	
Total Expenses.....	\$443,579.21	
Furniture and Fixtures Purchased.....	558.95	

Other Disbursements

May 31, 1932 May 31, 1933

For increase in Protested Checks			
(Gross)	\$2,357.45	\$3,984.55	1,627.10
For increase in Time Checks.....	1,118.98	3,510.81	2,391.83
Travel Advance.....			722.52
Total Expenses.....			<u>448,879.61</u>
Cash on Hand, May 31, 1933.....			<u>\$116,104.83</u>

HENRY LESTER SMITH,
Treasurer.

REPORT OF THE BUDGET COMMITTEE

Appropriations

The following is an excerpt from a resolution adopted by the Board of Directors in 1927:

Before making any appropriations for any fiscal year, the Board of Directors shall have in hand and shall have considered all requests for appropriations for the year, and shall also have in hand an estimate from the secretary and the Board of Trustees of the probable income for the year. Appropriations shall not be made in excess of this estimate.

Maximum Expenditures

The respective total amounts finally budgeted for the divisions of the headquarters staff and the various departments and special committees shall be in each case the maximum amounts that may be expended, except that on the written recommendation of the secretary of the Association and with the formal approval of the Executive Committee the Emergency Fund may be drawn upon to provide for the unforeseen needs of a division, department or committee.

Budget Recommendations for 1933-34 Approved by the Board of Directors July 4, 1933

Appropriated
1933-34

1. Board of Trustees:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29\$	613.69
1929-30	798.51
1930-31	1,096.60
1931-32	941.47
1932-33	784.02

Amount recommended for 1933-34.....\$ 900.00

2. Executive Committee:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29\$	3,313.01
1929-30	4,137.53
1930-31	4,242.10
1931-32	3,261.09
1932-33	3,246.12

Amount recommended for 1933-34.....\$ 2,500.00

3. Board of Directors:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29\$	7,821.49
1929-30	8,347.00
1930-31	8,750.58
1931-32	14,234.68
1932-33	9,822.19

Amount recommended for 1933-34.....\$ 8,000.00

Appropriated
1933-34

4. Contingent Fund for President:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 440.47
1929-30	955.45
1930-31	1,575.12
1931-32	654.94
1932-33	1,636.12*

Amount recommended for 1933-34.....\$ 700.00

5. General Secretary's Office:

**Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 34,470.47
1929-30	35,913.75
1930-31	35,853.43
1931-32	36,320.30
1932-33	30,438.73

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 27,525.00
Traveling Expense	800.00
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	425.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	1,075.00
Telegrams	175.00

Total	\$30,000.00
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6. Field Division (Legislative):

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 18,138.66
1929-30	17,209.93
1930-31	15,950.42
1931-32	16,686.17
1932-33	12,632.92

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 9,800.00
Traveling Expense	750.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	60.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	150.00
Telegrams	40.00

Total	\$ 10,800.00
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7. Division of Business:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 16,606.35
1929-30	17,594.63
1930-31	18,637.91
1931-32	19,086.43
1932-33	16,157.68

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 14,675.00
Traveling Expense	725.00

*Includes also expenses for Joint Emergency Commission.

**Includes also Division of Accounts.

		Appropriated 1933-34
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	\$80.00	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	310.00	
Telegrams	40.00	
Typing Section	10.00	
Mailing Section	25.00	
Multigraph Section	10.00	
Advertising Service	125.00	
Total		\$ 16,000.00

8. Division of Publications:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 31,660.20
1929-30	40,120.21
1930-31	43,306.66
1931-32	44,613.65
1932-33	39,659.15

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 33,450.00
Traveling Expense	1,325.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	590.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,025.00
Telegrams	150.00
Reprints	750.00
Photographs, Prints, Mats and Electros	275.00
American Education Week	2,835.00

Total	\$ 40,400.00
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9. Division of Research:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 48,533.30
1929-30	53,866.02
1930-31	59,117.58
1931-32	60,251.27
1932-33	55,406.58

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 50,600.00
Traveling Expense	1,150.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	700.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	1,125.00
Telegrams	50.00
Special Charts, Tables, etc.	1,025.00
Books and Pamphlets (Library)	350.00

Total	\$ 55,000.00
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10. Division of Classroom Service:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 7,523.75
1929-30	7,751.15
1930-31	8,137.76

Appropriated
1933-34

1931-32	\$8,236.80	
1932-33	7,306.38	
Amount recommended for 1933-34:		
Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 6,875.00	
Traveling Expense	210.00	
Stationery and Office Supplies	45.00	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	115.00	
Telegrams	5.00	
Total		\$ 7,250.00

11. Division of Administrative Service:

Actual expenses for last five years:		
1928-29	\$ 8,124.42	
1929-30	8,447.05	
1930-31	9,001.03	
1931-32	9,252.90	
1932-33	8,631.42	
Amount recommended for 1933-34:		
Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 8,410.00	
Traveling Expense	100.00	
Stationery and Office Supplies	20.00	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	20.00	
Total		\$ 8,550.00

12. Division of Records and Membership:

A. *Records:*

Actual expenses for last five years:		
1928-29	\$ 33,492.67	
1929-30	33,752.90	
1930-31	34,962.42	
1931-32	34,867.70	
1932-33	27,093.51	
Amount recommended for 1933-34:		
Salaries and Clerical Services	\$ 25,450.00	
Traveling Expense	440.00	
Stationery and Office Supplies	100.00	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	215.00	
Telegrams	5.00	
Stock, Supplies and Machine Upkeep (Addressograph Section)	390.00	
Total		\$ 26,600.00

B. *Membership:*

Actual expenses for last five years:	
1928-29	\$ 35,003.46
1929-30	35,852.19
1930-31	38,015.93

Appropriated
1933-34

1931-32	\$37,527.80	
1932-33	27,499.74	
Amount recommended for 1933-34	\$ 27,000.00	
TOTAL for Division		\$ 53,800.00

13. Physical Plant:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 22,211.84
1929-30	22,398.92
1930-31	23,718.82
1931-32	58,662.63
1932-33	54,529.44

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Rent	\$ 43,000.00
Light and Power	1,600.00
Heat	1,200.00
Janitor Service	5,800.00
Maintenance	2,400.00
Total	\$ 54,000.00

14. General Office Expenses:

A. Operating Expenses:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 6,814.32
1929-30	6,945.83
1930-31	7,922.32
1931-32	8,357.87
1932-33	7,170.20

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Telephone Service	\$ 3,110.00
Repairs—Office Furniture and Equip- ment	425.00
Insurance	540.00
General Expense	425.00
Refunds of Overpayments	50.00
Purchase of Back Volumes	10.00
Express and Freight	440.00
Interest and Discount Allowed	900.00
Surety Bonds	255.00
Auditing Accounts of Association	500.00
Mailing—Reports and Pamphlets	170.00
Government Tax on Checks	175.00
Total	\$ 7,000.00

B. Office Furniture and Fixtures:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 4,932.97
1929-30	4,000.95

Appropriated
1933-34

1930-31	\$4,480.83
1931-32	5,466.07
1932-33	558.95

Amount recommended for 1933-34	\$ 1,000.00
Total	\$ 8,000.00

15. Annual Conventions:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 5,917.34
1929-30	7,764.33
1930-31	6,518.04
1931-32	32,339.88
1932-33	21,363.17

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

General Convention Expenses	4,000.00
Operation of Exhibits	7,500.00*
Exhibit Payment to Department of Superintendence	9,500.00*

Total	\$ 21,000.00
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16. Journal of the National Education Association:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$105,055.54
1929-30	108,538.69
1930-31	106,082.33
1931-32	101,805.67
1932-33	74,844.82

Amount recommended for 1933-34.....	74,000.00
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17. Other Publications:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 22,705.77
1929-30	24,583.36
1930-31	26,291.40
1931-32	25,604.33
1932-33	13,670.80

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Research Bulletin.....	\$ 4,600.00
Volume of Proceedings.....	8,500.00
Publications and Reports for General Sale	400.00

Total	\$ 13,500.00
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18. Financing Delegates:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 7,862.50
1929-30	8,484.05

* Prior to 1931-32 provided for directly from exhibit receipts.

Appropriated
1933-34

1930-31	\$8,484.50	
1931-32	9,122.50	
1932-33	7,101.75	
Amount recommended for 1933-34.....	\$	8,000.00

19. Department and Committee Appropriations:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 26,052.31
1929-30	15,846.31
1930-31	16,894.11
1931-32	15,391.06
1932-33	14,664.24

Amount recommended for 1933-34:

Health and Physical Education.....	\$	400.00
Legislative Com.....		350.00
Com. on Tenure.....		50.00
Dept. of Classroom Teachers.....		10,100.00
Retirement Com.....		100.00
Enrichment of Adult Life.....		300.00
Nat. Council on Education.....		300.00
Economic Status of Teacher.....		1,400.00
Am. Research Department.....		500.00
Social Economic Objectives.....		5,000.00
Dept. Rural Ed.....		300.00
Dept. Sec. Ed.....		1,500.00
Dept. Adult Ed.....		500.00
Joint Emergency Commission.....		5,000.00

Total \$ 25,800.00

Note: Expenditures for printing (under Section 19) shall be made under the direction of the Secretary of the Association. For satisfactory reasons, including lower cost and convenience in distribution, the Secretary may permit a department or committee to contract for printing. Printing orders shall be placed on the basis of competitive bids.

20. Association Membership Fees:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 1,100.00
1929-30	1,100.00
1930-31	1,200.00
1931-32	700.00
1932-33	700.00

Amount recommended for 1933-34..... \$ 1,200.00*

21. Retirement Annuities and Insurance:

Actual expenses for last five years:

1928-29	\$ 7,519.01
1929-30	6,865.08
1930-31	11,253.19
1931-32	8,725.16
1932-33	9,220.23

Amount recommended for 1933-34..... 9,200.00

* Complete payment for 1933-34.

Appropriated
1933-34

22. Emergency Fund:

Amount recommended for 1933-34..... \$ 1,500.00

GRAND TOTAL..... \$449,900.00

Available for Appropriations for 1933-34

Cash Assets

Cash on hand National Metropolitan Bank and Petty Cash..\$ 42,216.50

60% of deposits of \$73,888.33 in Regular and Special Ac-
counts of Commercial National Bank..... 44,332.98Full amount of income from Permanent Fund in Commercial
National Bank..... 20,773.37

Accounts receivable less reserve for bad accounts..... 9,205.19

Time checks receivable..... 3,510.81

Total Cash Assets..... \$120,038.85

Liabilities

Approved vouchers payable—Trade creditors.....\$ 36,502.84

Deferred payrolls..... 13,465.56

Due to Associated Departments..... 32,523.92

Total Liabilities..... \$ 82,492.32

NET CASH ASSETS AVAILABLE FOR 1933-34 EXPENDITURES.. 37,546.53

Estimated Income for 1933-34

Memberships from Secretary's Office.....\$157,000.00

N. E. A. *Journal*—Subscription and Advertising..... 190,000.00Sales of *Proceedings*..... 400.00

Sales of Special Reports..... 4,000.00

Commercial Exhibits..... 35,000.00

Research Bulletins..... 6,300.00

Honorariums 1,650.00

Rentals 9,150.00

Interest and Discount Earned..... 1,050.00

Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, etc..... 1,250.00

American Education Week Material—sales..... 4,000.00

Income from Permanent Fund..... 47,500.00

Sundry Income..... 200.00

Total Estimated Income..... \$457,500.00

TOTAL AVAILABLE FOR APPROPRIATION..... \$495,046.53

TOTAL RECOMMENDED APPROPRIATIONS..... 449,900.00

Excess of available funds over appropriations..... \$ 45,146.53

THE BUDGET COMMITTEE

W. B. MOONEY, Denver, Colorado

ANNIE C. WOODWARD, Somerville, Massachusetts

A. L. WHITTENBERG, Springfield, Illinois

CHARLES CARROLL, Providence, Rhode Island

L. W. ROGERS, Chairman, Austin, Texas.

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Chicago, Illinois

Saturday Morning, July 1, 1933

(In Brief)

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association convened at 9:30 a. m., in the President's Suite, 1004-1006 Stevens Hotel, with *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, presiding.

There were present: *Joseph H. Saunders*, *Joseph Rosier*, *Kate V. Wofford*, and *Edgar G. Doudna*.

There were also present *Florence Hale* and *J. W. Crabtree*.

The Chair: The first thing will be the minutes of the Minneapolis meeting.

(*Miss Wofford*, secretary of the Board of Trustees, read the minutes.)

The Chair: Are there any remarks?

Mr. Rosier: I would like to ask, *Mr. Chairman*, if there was anything developed about that will, the money?

The Chair: Yes, I will have a full report of that here in a moment. If there is no objection the minutes will stand approved as read.

The next matter is the printed report which has just been given you, which is the combined Audit and Treasurer's report, combined all in one form to save the expense of printing. Now I want to go over this report rather in detail with you because there are some things will require your discussion and acceptance or disapproval as we go.

(*Mr. Saunders* thereupon read the opening statement of the printed report preceding the tabulations, and then proceeded to go over, item by item, the tabulations set forth on pages 3, 4, and 5 of the Report of the Board of Trustees.)

(He then explained, in answer to questions, the *Marilla Z. Parker* estate matter.)

Miss Kate Wofford: I move that the report be approved.

Mr. Edgar G. Doudna: I second the motion.

Miss Wofford: I would like to include in my motion, that we not only approve the report but express our appreciation of the very capable way in which *Mr. Saunders* has handled our affairs.

(The motion was thereupon put by *Mr. Rosier* and unanimously carried.)

The Chair: Now if you will turn to the first part of the report you will find there that in our Trust Fund deposited in the Commercial National Bank, which closed its doors while we were in Minneapolis, there were securities and \$35,944.26 in cash.

Mr. Doudna: How did you happen to have so much cash?

The Chair: I'll tell you how we happened to have so much cash. (He then went over the matter in detail.)

At this point *Superintendent William G. Bogan* of Chicago greeted the Board and wished them a very successful convention and a happy time during their stay in Chicago.

Miss Hale inquired if the Association was going to have enough money to begin to pay the regular salaries out of what came in later on and *Chairman Saunders* stated that the prospects at this time indicated the Association would be able to do so beginning with September.

Mr. Rosier: *Mr. Saunders*, I think the Budget Committee probably is going to recommend that a loan be made and that these salaries be paid immediately, that is the first part of the year. The Budget Committee takes the view they had reduced the salaries 10 percent, and *Mr. Moody* and *Mr. Whittenberg* are rather strongly of the opinion these people ought to be paid.

Miss Florence Hale: I think they ought to, too. (Others took part in the discussion.)

Mr. Doudna: Does the treasurer have any relationship toward the Trust Fund?

The Chair: The treasurer has no relationship to the Trust Fund.

Mr. Henry Lester Smith: And as I understand it the treasurer has no authority over the selection of the depository for the operating fund.

The Chair: No, the Board of Trustees has that authority.

The Chair (after explaining the care of trust funds): Now what I am coming to is this, whether or not it is the wish of the Board of Trustees for us to employ a trust company as trustee, to deposit our securities and money again with them and maybe go thru an experience such as we have just gone thru, or whether we should keep them ourselves in our lock-box with account kept by the treasurer or assistant treasurer of the current revenue and deposit it—

Mr. Doudna (interrupting): Is the business manager bonded?

The Chair: Yes, the business manager is bonded.

Mr. Doudna: Are you bonded?

The Chair: No, I am not bonded, not as a member of the Board of Trustees.

It was thereupon moved by *Mr. Doudna*, seconded by *Miss Wofford*, that the Board proceed to operate under this scheme of having the chairman of the Board and the business manager, *Mr. Allan*, look after the securities jointly and the revenue therefrom, the chairman to serve without bond for one year, and at the end of that period if the Association was in better funds, it would probably be better to bond the chairman.

It was further suggested by *Mr. Thomas W. Gosling*, a member of the Executive Committee but not a member of the Board of Trustees, who had come in during the course of the meeting, that possibly it might be well to designate three persons rather than just two, in the event of a protracted illness on the part of any one member.

Mr. Doudna further suggested that if any trouble should arise before the mid-year meeting at Cleveland, at that time the Board could correct it.

Thereupon, the motion was put and unanimously carried.

The Chair: As I stated awhile ago *Mr. Allan* and I are going to try to get the *Parker* estate in such shape we can make a much more satisfactory report than the one which is set up here in the printed report but we thought that this would give you full information, at least it is as full as we can make it at this time, and these securities were also checked by the auditor. We have not as yet put these securities in the lock-box because while questions were coming up about them every day or two that necessitated handling them we have kept them in the vault at Headquarters. They are not in the records of the Association.

Mr. Doudna: I think they ought to be kept separate.

The Chair: We are keeping them separate at the present time.

After *Mr. Saunders* explained his handling of the Arkansas bonds it was thereupon moved by *Mr. Doudna*, seconded by *Miss Wofford*, that the Board of Trustees approve the action of its chairman in declining to become a member of the Bondholders' Committee to prosecute an action against the state of Arkansas, which motion was put and carried.

The Chair: There is no further business with the exception of the question of the election of a secretary and *Dr. Gwinn* wants to be present when we take up that question, so unless some member of the Board has some matter to bring up for our consideration, I think we will adjourn and let the Executive Committee meet and set a time for further meeting when *Dr. Gwinn* can be present in the taking up of the matter of electing our secretary.

It was thereupon decided by the members of the Board that the meeting should adjourn to re-convene at 5 o'clock Monday, July 3.

JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*.

Monday Morning, July 3, 1933

(In Brief)

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association re-convened, pursuant to adjournment, at 5 p. m., in the President's Suite, 1004-1006 Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, with *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, presiding.

There were present: *Joseph H. Saunders*, *J. M. Gwinn*, *Edgar G. Doudna*, *Kate V. Wofford*, and *Joseph Rosier*.

The Chair: The Board of Trustees will come to order. The meeting of the Board at this hour is for the purpose of electing a secretary of the National Education Association. The term of the secretary expires September 15. The Chair will entertain any motion any member of the Board has to make.

Dr. J. M. Gwinn: I move, Mr. Chairman, that *Mr. J. W. Crabtree*, the present secretary, be elected secretary at the same salary as he now receives, less a waiver of 10 percent as recommended by the Budget Committee, and to serve for the fiscal year, June 1, 1933, to May 31, 1934, and thereafter until his successor has been elected and in office.

The motion was duly seconded by *Mr. Doudna*, put and unanimously carried.

The Chair: The Chair will entertain any other motion that there is.

Mr. E. G. Doudna: In view of the fact that *Mr. Crabtree* will have reached the age of retirement, as determined by our retirement plan, before the expiration of his duly elected term of office, I move that we request the Executive Committee to provide a plan for an adequate retirement allowance.

The motion was duly seconded by *Miss Wofford*, put and unanimously carried.

There being no further business to come before the Board, the chair entertained a motion, which was duly seconded, to adjourn until Friday, July 7, 1933, at the hour scheduled on the official printed program.

JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*.

Friday Afternoon, July 7, 1933

(In Brief)

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association convened at 3:30 p. m., in a committee room on the Ballroom Floor of the Stevens Hotel, with *Joseph H. Saunders*, chairman, presiding.

There were present: *Joseph H. Saunders*, *Jessie Gray*, *Joseph Rosier*, and *J. M. Gwinn*.

There were also present *Henry Lester Smith* and *Thomas W. Gosling*, members of the Executive Committee, *Secretary J. W. Crabtree*, and *H. A. Allan*, business manager of the Association.

The Chair: The Board of Trustees will now come to order. It has been the custom of this Association for the treasurer and the retiring president to sit in with us and participate in our discussion.

Mr. Smith: I appreciate it very much and if it were not for the fact I have my family and have to drive tonight 250 miles I would remain. As it is I believe I should go.

The Chair: There are only two matters here that I have not reported to the Trustees that I should like to report before we take up the organization of the Board for the coming year. One of them you heard me announce at the Representative Assembly this morning in giving our report. We have received telegraphic assurances from Washington that we have been successful in our fight in obtaining the cash in the Trustees' Fund less the interest that had been charged to that fund. That was a technical point involved. So it is less the interest that

has been charged to that fund since it has been on deposit. Of course there will be some attorneys' fees. I don't know what they will be as yet.

The second matter is that *Mr. Allan* and I succeeded yesterday in coming to an amicable and satisfactory conclusion with our attorney here in Chicago, *Mr. Greenacre*. *Mr. Greenacre* was employed as most of us know at the suggestion of *Miss Harden* and some of the other teachers here in Chicago to handle the *Marilla Z. Parker* estate. Since the almost complete settlement of that estate *Mr. Greenacre* has suggested his fee as attorney would be what he said was the fee paid by the other heirs to their attorney, namely, \$2500. We suggested that that was entirely too much and we made a counter proposition of \$500, which insulted him. But *Mr. Allan* suggested to him in a subsequent interview that perhaps he would like to make a donation of a part of his fee to the Association since he expressed interest in teachers and teacher organizations and that inasmuch as he is the attorney for the teachers association in Chicago. So finally he suggested we pay him \$1500 and that he would make a donation of \$1000 to the Association. We let that simmer for five or six months and yesterday *Mr. Allan* and I called on *Mr. Greenacre* to complete our relationships with him. He thereupon agreed, after I pointed out to him how this estate was dwindling on account of the kind of securities in which it had been invested—some of them no good at all—and that we stood to profit far less from the affair than he or anybody else anticipated and as he had collected \$1048 and some cents that he accept the cash in hand in complete settlement of his fee. He agreed to that proposition and we were to make him a duplicate statement showing that he had donated the difference between that and what his fee ought to be to the Association. So we made up that voucher and I have signed it and so far as the attorney's fees in connection with that estate are concerned, the matter is settled. There are some other questions connected with that estate that are not yet settled, namely, the value of some lands out in the northwest, the leases on those lands and so forth, but we can handle that thru our business office in Washington. Now perhaps it might be well for you to approve the action which *Mr. Allan* and I took in the settlement of that matter as a matter of this year's business. I would like to have a motion to that effect if you so feel.

It was moved by *Mr. Gwinn*, seconded by *Miss Gray*, that the action of the chairman in the matter of attorney's fees connected with the *Marilla Z. Parker* estate be approved, and the motion was thereupon put and unanimously carried.

The Chair: Now at this time it is necessary to reorganize the Board of Trustees by the election of the chairman and secretary.

Mr. J. M. Gwinn: Mr. Chairman, *Mr. Doudna* and *Miss Wofford* of course had to leave, they can't be here, but there is a quorum. We have been well served by our present chairman and secretary, so I move *Mr. Saunders* be continued as the chairman of the Board of Trustees, and, if it is proper to be included in one motion, that *Miss Wofford* be continued as secretary.

Miss Jessie Gray: I second the motion.

(The motion thereupon was put by *Secretary Crabtree* and unanimously carried.)

The Chair: Thank you very much. I will try to look after your interests faithfully during the coming year.

Mr. Gwinn: If it were legal to do so, I have been authorized to have proxies for *Mr. Doudna* to cast his vote, and *Miss Wofford* too, to vote for *Mr. Saunders*. Of course she couldn't vote for herself.

The Chair: The Board is ready then for the transaction of any business that may come before it properly. I think the only thing you ought to do maybe at this time, so far as I can think at the present time, is to review the resolution—I haven't got the exact language of it now but it is in our previous minutes—authorizing us to borrow such sums as may be necessary to carry forward the activities of the Association during the coming six months.

The motion was made by *Mr. J. M. Gwinn*, seconded by *Miss Gray*, that the chairman of the Board be authorized to borrow such money as was necessary to

continue the activities of the Association during the coming six months, which motion was voted upon and carried.

The Chair: Is there anyone else who wishes to bring up anything? There is one other thing perhaps I would like to get your approval on, because it is your business. I would like to have the approval of the deposit of a portion of the Trust and Income Funds in the American Security & Trust Company, and also if it seems wise in the Federal American Bank, or the Liberty National Bank. It is one of the two banks which have offered to help us. I would like to have the authorization of the Board to deposit the funds handled by the Trustees which are in three different funds, the Income account, the Trustees' account and the General Funds of the Association which are now in the Metropolitan Bank—and I would like to have your authorization to use all three of these banks because it seems wise to distribute our funds at the present time rather than carry all our eggs in one basket. Those seem to be the most reliable banks.

It was moved by *Mr. Gwinn*, seconded by *Miss Gray*, that the Board authorize the chairman to make the deposits of the funds referred to by the chairman in the three banks named, which motion was put and unanimously carried.

It was asked by *Miss Gray* if there was any way of safeguarding the deposits in the bank and the chairman stated there was not. *Mr. Gwinn* inquired if it was possible to insure deposits and *Chairman Saunders* stated that it was not but that beginning the first of January under the new Federal Law up to \$2500 could be guaranteed, and after the first of June of next year up to \$10,000 and after January first of the following year up to \$50,000 could be guaranteed under the new banking law. The chairman also stated he might be in error as to the exact date except he knew the smaller amount began the first of January 1934. The chairman further stated that some two years before the Board had authorized him to attempt to insure the deposits and that he found it could not be done; that neither banks nor trust companies would insure anything except trust funds.

There being no further business to come before the Board, *Chairman Saunders* entertained a motion to adjourn and the Board of Trustees was declared adjourned subject to the call of the chairman.

JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, *Chairman*
KATE V. WOFFORD, *Secretary*.

THE ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

PART I

Weathering the Storm

IN OUR REPORT for 1932 we used the subject "American Education Faces the Storm." The profession has during the present year not only faced the blasts of the worst storm in the history of our nation but it has battled bravely in the darkest hours. It has succeeded in salvaging many of the essentials in our American system of education which will serve as a basis for readjustments and rebuilding to begin as soon as the dark clouds and the fury of the winds have passed. In other words the profession led by local, state, and national associations is "weathering the storm" in a remarkably effective manner.

SALVAGING
ESSENTIALS

Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education

As the seriousness of the emergency became apparent, the National Education Association took steps to mobilize the forces of education throughout the country in support of our American schools. The most important step which the Association has taken in a decade is the appointment in cooperation with the Department of Superintendence of the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education and the recognition of its leadership in all problems that have grown out of the depression. The activities of the commission, therefore, become an important feature of the Secretary's Report.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE EMERGENCY

The commission represents in its membership and consultants every phase of educational enterprise. It brings together the best experience of the entire profession. It encourages every teacher in elementary school, high school, college, university, or professional school to assume his share of responsibility for interpreting education to the public.

NATIONWIDE RESPONSE TO COMMISSION PLANS

The response of the profession and of the citizens of the country has been most encouraging. Every group and sectional interest has been subordinated to make the work of the commission effective. From every quarter there has come wholehearted and enthusiastic cooperation. The regional meetings have brought encouragement and perspective to all who have taken part in them. They have helped to define the problems created by the emergency. They have helped to hold the battle-line for the schools.

No one can estimate the farreaching effects of the prompt, vigorous, and continuing leadership which this joint commission, under the chairmanship of Dr. John K. Norton of Columbia University, former director of research for the National Education Association, has been able to give to

TAKING THE SCHOOLS TO THE PEOPLE

the profession and to the country. The commission will present its plans for 1933-34 at the Chicago convention. These plans include a comprehensive interpretation of the ideals, purposes, and achievements of American education to the entire population. They include a widespread celebration of American Education Week which will reach millions of homes with a new understanding of the significance of the school in the life of children.

Owing to the depression and to an antiquated system of taxation in many of the states thousands of children have lost from two months to a full year of their inherent right for an education. That much of their birthright has been lost forever. Other hundreds would have lost theirs if teachers had not managed some way to keep the schools open—sometimes on a pittance of pay and sometimes without any pay at all.

CHILDREN DEPRIVED OF AN INHERENT RIGHT

In deep appreciation of the loyalty and devotion of the teachers in Alabama, Michigan, Illinois, and in every other state we poured out our heart in a tribute to the teachers of 1933 which we are including in this report. This tribute was prepared in its present form soon after the meeting of the Department of Superintendence and at the time of the March 1933 moratorium on banks. It sets forth the teachers' courage, loyalty, and devotion as exhibited under the terrible ordeals of the depression. We make it a part of this report because of the recognition which it has already had and because of the satisfaction to teachers to know that their sacrifices are appreciated.

THE TRIBUTE

My Tribute to the Teacher

There will be no moratorium on education. A moratorium on education would mean a moratorium on civilization. This is one of the reasons why teachers will continue the schools, pay or no pay. The nation, as it becomes aware of the services and sacrifices of teachers and of the great significance of their courage and farsightedness, will show the appreciation that it has shown to its soldiers who sacrificed their lives for their country.

NO MORATORIUM ON EDUCATION

In the crisis of the seventies, I was amazed, as a boy, at the sacrifices made by the pioneer teacher of that day. Since then, I have observed that whether in time of famine or in time of plenty, the teacher has lived not for self, but for the children and the community. I have noticed that the selfish man or woman seldom remains long in the profession.

SACRIFICES IN THE SEVENTIES

When the terrible days of the World War came upon us, who led in food conservation? Who led in the sale of Liberty bonds? Who led in collecting food, clothing, and funds for the Red Cross? Who kept the schools going, whether funds were available or not? And what of the teachers of today? They are serving in a worse crisis than ever before. Their responsibility is greater. Environment is more destructive in its effect on children. The teacher-load is almost doubled. In spite of all this, the teacher is again leading in welfare activities. There may be a delay in pay—a month or six months—or the pay may be cut off for the year, yet the work of the school goes on!

SACRIFICES IN WORLD WAR AND NOW

Who is it that removes gloom from the lives of children that come from homes filled with sorrow and suffering because of the depression? Who is it that inspires children with courage and ambition? Who teaches them to look forward to better days? Who is it that is saving civilization in these dark hours? All honor, therefore, to the teacher of 1933! Your courage and your devotion stand out as the safeguard of our democracy and as the hope of the nation.

THE HOPE OF THE NATION

The Headquarters Staff

The tribute to the teachers of 1933 might well apply to the headquarters staff. Salaries were not reduced a year ago because the staff had offered to offset any possible decrease in income by means of free service. The situation became more serious than was anticipated. Then came the moratorium on banks, and the closing of the Commercial National Bank in which more than half our funds were deposited. To meet the situation each member of the staff gave not less than five weeks of free service. Since the closing of the bank, staff members have received only half their pay and will not receive the other half until fall. This has been done cheerfully. When sympathy is expressed they are likely to say that their ordeal is less severe than that of thousands of teachers in the nation.

DONATING SERVICE

Then came the moratorium on banks, and the closing of the Commercial National Bank in which more than half our funds were deposited. To meet the situation each member of the staff gave not less than five weeks of free service. Since the closing of the bank, staff members have received only half their pay and will not receive the other half until fall. This has been done cheerfully. When sympathy is expressed they are likely to say that their ordeal is less severe than that of thousands of teachers in the nation.

The staff not only donated service but it has assisted in saving in every other possible way. We hardly know yet how it was done but the figures show that we got along on \$93,000 less than was appropriated by the Representative Assembly. It is just the teacher way of sacrificing when necessary in an emergency. It is a natural result of a fine staff morale and an unselfish spirit such as teachers have shown as the challenge has come to them.

STAFF SPIRIT

The Chicago Situation

The Board of Directors at the Atlantic City Convention located the convention for 1933 at Chicago largely in honor of the Chicago teachers who were at the time fighting to keep the schools open and to force pay for their services. Soon after this and after the R. F. C. had loaned millions to Chicago banks, and after bankers had shown impatience and disgust over the demands on them to cash warrants, the teachers in all the states began to protest against the treatment of Chicago teachers, demanding that the convention be changed to some other city unless authorities should do the right thing by the teachers.

THE BATTLE FOR CHICAGO TEACHERS

The Secretary under the authority of President Rosier took up the fight for the teachers, attacking men in high places, giving them full information on the feeling of bitterness thruout the nation and showing the effect that all this would have on the celebration. These leaders finally saw that they were not only contending with the teachers of Chicago but with the teachers (and their friends) of the nation. They then found a way of cashing the warrants to January and promised to continue payments as rapidly as possible. President Rosier having given due consideration to protests, in view of the victory achieved for Chicago teachers decided to hold the convention in this city as previously planned. The financial leaders in Chicago are now under still deeper obligations to carry out their promises to Mayor Kelly and Superintendent Bogan.

A SIGNIFICANT VICTORY

PART II

Selections from the Reports of Divisions

Division of Publications

JOY ELMER MORGAN, *Director*

The growth of interpretive activities is reflected in the increased demands which have been made upon the Division of Publications during the year. The experience gained during the thirteen years that this Division has been in operation and the resources of a trained staff are an invaluable asset to the teachers of the nation. At no time since its organization in 1920 has the Division of Publications been so effective as during 1932-33. Tho the Division has shared with the headquarters staff as a whole in keeping expenditures within Association income, it has done more work than ever before and has done it better. The Division is now organized in four units in such a way as to fix responsibility and to give flexibility as new demands arise. The director works on *The Journal* and major plans. An assistant director, Lyle W. Ashby, is assigned administrative work and special projects. Another assistant director, Ernest R. Bryan, coordinates printing. Convention press service, American Education Week, newspaper contacts, and radio programs are coordinated under another assistant director, Belmont Farley. The spirit of the staff is fine. The loyalty, devotion, and personal growth among its members have made possible an increased service on reduced funds.

INCREASED
DEMANDS
FOR SERVICE

During 1932-33 *The Journal* has given particular attention to the emergency in American life and education. It has spread information which would help teachers to understand conditions affecting their schools and which would encourage them to give a more vigorous leadership to the communities in which they live and work.

THE JOURNAL AND
THE EMERGENCY

The Department of Elementary School Principals

EVA G. PINKSTON, *Executive Secretary*

We hope to be keenly alert to professional improvement—new methods and ideas which are continually being tried out; to every movement which will enrich the lives of our people; and to all conditions which affect education. The activities of the Department have been many and varied. The promotion of membership, keeping a financial record, and answering a volume of correspondence are among the most time-consuming. Plans and policies must be worked out and approved by the executive committee. The past year has been a testing time and an extra effort was made to keep as nearly as possible to our

ACTIVITIES

membership of last year. Bills, letters, cartoons, and leaflets were sent regularly each month to principals, vice-principals, superintendents, and many other groups whom we thought might be interested in joining the Department. The dues which we have received have been sent in the form of checks, money pinned in an envelope, money orders, scrip, and warrants. The response has been inspiring.

Another activity added to the Headquarters Office this past year was the editing and publishing of the *National Elementary Principal*—the news bulletin of the department. The change in name and make-up of the bulletin required close attention. It gives me much pleasure to report that the comments received about the new bulletin from members and friends have been only of praise.

Research Division

WILLIAM G. CARR, *Director*

During the year just past the Research Division has continued to place the major share of its resources in the struggle to maintain educational standards. Reports have been prepared which aim to help local communities in meeting their urgent financial and educational problems. Up-to-the-minute information on school salaries, budgets, and retrenchments has been collected and distributed. In planning the work of the Division, priority has been given to those projects which deal with the crisis confronting the schools. The Division gave direct service to several communities and states in organizing facts for the defense of their schools. The Division cooperated with the United States Office of Education in the preparation of the report entitled "The Current Situation in Education," which became the basic document submitted to the Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education called last January by the President of the United States.

The Division has also been assigned the responsibility for carrying thru many of the projects sponsored by the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. In cooperation with other staff units the Division developed the exhibits sponsored by the Joint Commission at its four regional conferences and at the Minneapolis and Chicago conventions.

THE EMERGENCY OFFERS AN OPPORTUNITY A series of leaflets stating important facts and principles has been prepared for early publication by the Commission.

SERIES OF LEAFLETS The following special reports totaling over four hundred mimeographed pages have also been drafted for the Commission and its five hundred consultants: (a) The Depression and the Schools; (b) Schools Closed and Children Denied Educational Opportunities in 1933; (c) Preliminary Survey of Certain Activities Affecting Public Education; (d) Tell Citizens About Their Schools; (e) Federal Pay Cuts and Their Bearing on Teachers' Salaries.

Secretary's Office, Including Accounts

HARRIETT M. CHASE, *Chief Assistant to the Secretary*

I. The Secretary's Office

HARRIETT M. CHASE, *Director*

The work of the Secretary's Office, outside of the duties and responsibilities of the secretary, might be divided into nine groups, i.e. (1) answering general correspondence; (2) keeping a card file of 100 percent schools, sending certificates and preparing *Journal* lists; (3) recording life members, conducting campaigns for new life members, and sending certificates; (4) filling orders for publications; (5) entering on the cash machine all funds which come to the Association; (6) keeping a record of all state and local affiliated associations, corresponding with them in connection with the annual meeting and at other times during the year; (7) sending identification certificates for both the meeting of the Department of Superintendence and the annual meeting of the Association; (8) communicating with officers of the Association and committees; (9) receiving visitors who come to headquarters, which requires about one-seventh of the time of one person. The girls in this Division take turns in acting as hostess. Each one has quite complete knowledge of the work of the Association and makes a trip thru headquarters most interesting for the visitor.

WORK

II. Accounts

MARY J. WINFREE, *Director*

The financial records of the Association are arranged, not only to correctly give the assets and liabilities, but to enable each department, committee, and division to quickly obtain complete information that will enable each to control its expenditures. The various reports show that these records have been helpful. A complete audit of the books is made each month and reported to the treasurer. Detailed reports are also furnished to all other officers. Full and complete data regarding the permanent fund are available to officers of the Association at all times.

**ACCOUNTS—
A PICTURE OF
ASSOCIATION**

Division of Administrative Service and Department of Superintendence

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND, *Executive Secretary*

The Division of Administrative Service was officially made a part of the National Education Association headquarters organization in 1923, with the Executive Secretary of the Department of Superintendence as its director ex officio. Thru this division contact is made with all departments and organizations which are concerned with school administration or supervision. It provides part of the machinery by which superintendents, principals, supervisors, and other school officials may better work together in solving educational problems of national interest. At no time

**THE DIVISION OF
ADMINISTRATIVE
SERVICE**

during this generation has the necessity for united effort and unselfish devotion to the common cause been so urgent as now. School people are looking more earnestly than ever before to their national and state associations for information and support.

The Department of Superintendence was organized in 1870 as one of the four original departments of the National Education Association. Its sixty-third annual meeting was held at Minneapolis, Minnesota, during the last week in February, 1933. The convention theme selected by President Mil-

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

ton C. Potter was "New Frontiers for American Life." Not since 1875 had the Department met in Minneapolis. As the convention met, the schools were confronted with a variety of difficult problems growing out of the depression. These problems, in one form or another, colored most of the discussions. The music at Minneapolis was notable. Programs such as were rendered by the public school choruses, orchestras, and bands are seldom equalled. A concert by St. Olaf's Choir on Sunday afternoon and one by the Minneapolis Symphony Orchestra on Wednesday evening were high spots in the convention program. A life membership in the Department of Superintendence was presented to Dr. Ellwood P. Cubberley, Dean, School of Education, Stanford University, California who retired from active service this year.

Field Service Division

CHARL WILLIAMS, *Director*

On June 30, 1932, Congress conferred upon the President of the United States the power to reorganize the executive and administrative agencies of the federal government, and on December 9, 1932, President Hoover presented a plan for such reorganization to Congress. The House Committee on Expenditures in the Executive Departments of the Government held hearings on the President's plan from December 14-23, 1932, and on January 19, 1933, submitted an unfavorable report on the plan. The House approved the committee's report.

Section 407 of the Act of June 30, 1932, was amended by Section 16 of the Act of March 3, 1933, and by Section 1 of Title III of the Act of March 20, 1933, to read as follows:

Whenever the President makes an executive order under the provisions of this title, such executive order shall be submitted to Congress while in session and shall not become effective until after the expiration of 60 calendar days after such transmission, unless Congress shall by law provide for an earlier effective date of such executive order or orders.

On Saturday, June 10, 1933, President Roosevelt sent an executive order on reorganization of the federal government to Congress. The following

sections of that order deal with the transfer of vocational educational activities of the federal government:

Section 15. Title: Vocational Education.

The functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education are transferred to the Department of the Interior and the board shall act in an advisory capacity without compensation.

Section 22. Title: Effective Date.

In accordance with law, this order shall become effective 61 days from its date, provided, however, that in case it shall appear to the President that the interests of economy require that any transfers, consolidations, or eliminations should be made beyond the date this order becomes effective, he may in his discretion fix a later date therefor, and he may for like cause further defer such date from time to time.

Congress took no action on this executive order; so the first session of the 73rd Congress adjourned leaving the President's reorganization order as submitted to that body in effect.

The following section of the executive order is not encouraging to educators:

Section 18: Title: Functions Reduced.

The following functions are abolished in part:

Cooperative Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, 25 percent thereof.

Payments for agricultural experiment stations, 25 percent thereof.

Cooperative agricultural extension work, 25 percent thereof.

Endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agricultural and mechanic arts, 25 percent thereof.

When the order was discussed in the Senate, Senator Charles L. McNary of Oregon offered an amendment which would nullify this section. The debate on his amendment in the closing hours of the Senate indicated that passage of this resolution by that body might result in delaying the carrying out of the provisions of Section 18 of the executive order.

Division of Business

H. A. ALLAN, *Director*

The Division of Business is both administrative and revenue producing. Some of its sections provide direct service to other divisions and Association activities. It consists of the Business Office, the Mailing Section, the Multi-graph Section, the Typing Section, and the Building Service Section. The present minimum organization requires twenty-five employees, thirteen of whom are on the permanent roll. The largest number employed during the year has been thirty-nine against a maximum of fifty-three employed during the peak period last year.

Division of Classroom Service

AGNES WINN, Director

The teachers of the nation have been called upon to take unusual responsibilities in their schools and in their communities and they have looked to the National Education Association and its Division of Classroom Service at Headquarters for assistance and guidance. The chief purpose of this Division is to render service to the classroom teachers of the country and the need for this service has been more clearly demonstrated this year than ever before. Service to the teachers has been given in three ways: (1) thru the Department of Classroom Teachers; (2) thru affiliated local associations and state organizations; and (3) thru correspondence with individuals.

A close relationship between local affiliated organizations and the N. E. A. has been developed thru correspondence, thru personal contacts with leaders during convention, and thru the exchange of local publications. The Division has aimed to send something that would be helpful to these affiliates at least once a month. More than fifty of these groups publish bulletins and these furnish one of the best means of keeping in touch with local activities. A working relationship has also been established with state organizations of classroom teachers. Nor has service to the individual been overlooked.

SERVICE TO LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

Division of Records and Membership

T. D. MARTIN, *Director*

The work of the Division of Records and Membership falls under four main headings, each distinct yet intimately related: (a) keeping the membership records; (b) answering inquiries regarding them; (c) addressing *The Journal* and other publications to members; (d) promotion of membership in cooperation with the secretary.

The prospects for next year are difficult to predict. The need for a united profession was never greater and need should be the measure of response, but teachers are merely human beings and can probably be classified next fall into three groups—(a) those who because of economic conditions cannot honestly afford to pay professional dues, (b) those who will use the plea of financial inability as an unwarranted alibi to avoid the payment of professional dues, and (c) those who in spite of reduced incomes will meet their professional responsibilities with a spirit of royal loyalty.

PROSPECTS

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY

MARY MCSKIMMON, PAST PRESIDENT OF THE N. E. A., BROOKLINE, MASS.

In the midst of this busy hour we pause for a moment in memory of the valiant and loving members of this organization who have passed on, whose faces we cannot see, but whose memories will remain to bring renewed courage in every darkened hour. Our list, incomplete as it is, contains nearly 500 names that have been the soul and strength of our American education. Their voices are silent, to our ears, but our hearts repeat the eloquent message of their lives. Only a handful of these names can be recalled in this crowded hour, but each one of us is a different person because of the contributions they have made thru the gifts they scattered among us so lavishly.

The names of the following members of the profession who have passed away during the past year have been sent to the chairman from the various states. There are probably others which have not been reported.

ALABAMA

Appleby, F. T.
Cooke, H. E.

Gibson, Simeon Blake
Letson, J. W.

Manley, Mark P.

ARIZONA

Felton, James L.
Gillespie, John

De Lozier, Ortelle
Lynch, Agnes G.

Perry, Frances M.
Swanson, Carl Arthur

ARKANSAS

Akridge, J. P.
Dunn, B. J.
England, W. R.

Latkin, Lena
Miller, F. W.
Sterling, Mrs. B. B.

Torreyson, Burr Walter
Zellers, Peter

CALIFORNIA

Babcock, Mrs. Julia G.
Bailey, Mrs. Rachel
Blackford, Mrs. Mabel V.
Ball, Miss Lew A.
Ballard, Mrs. Abbie E.
Bland, Lotta Lee
Bassler, Alice
Beasley, Mrs. Nellie Teal
Bowman, Amy G.
Braddock, D. W.
Bradley, Mrs. Gertrude
Upton
Breniman, Mrs. Edna
Brewer, Florence Howard
Brininger, Helen Kelsey
Cauch, Frank R.
Clark, Frederick H.
Collins, Mrs. Frances

Corwin, Mrs. Mae Johnson
Crites, Mrs. Louesa M.
Cutler, W. B.
Doom, Frances
Duval, Mrs. Robert
Erickson, Clarence Wm.
Fisher, Philip M.
Flynn, Alice Rose
Fox, Charles James
Gamble, Katherine
George, Bert M.
Hall, Richard Frederick
Hanley, Sara
Hanlon, William H.
Hargis, Samuel E.
Hunt, Helen Emily
Hutchinson, Agnes
Kelso, James M.

Lange, Marcia
Monlux, John B.
Overholser, John
Oyler, Georgia Lee
Richmond, Adha Jane
Roesman, Thomas Jefferson
Rowell, Percy R.
Ruch, Isabel
Sanders, George L.
Smith, Mrs. Eleanor H.
Stanton, O. F.
Wiggins, Pearl
Wight, W. S.
Wilkinson, Jasper N.
Williams, Mrs. Grace H.
Wilson, Harry B.

COLORADO

Berger, Evangeline
Bright, George F.
Brown, Edward L.

Brown, Russell R.
Dodds, John H.
Effinger, Stanley S.

Riggs, J. D. S.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Booth, Mrs. R. A.
Caron, Miss B. H.
Dodson, Mrs. L. L.
English, Harry

Gore, Miss M. F.
Hardy, Rose Lees
Jensen, Emma
Moss, Mrs. L. J.

Martin, Miss K. R.
Plummer, Miss N. A.
Rucker, A. S.
Shaw, Mrs. Julia H.

GEORGIA

Denton, J. N.

IDAHO

Bocock, Clarence E.

ILLINOIS

Hartline, Kate

McCormack, Thomas J.

INDIANA

Andrews, A. P.
 Augburn, Margaret
 Ayres, Gertrude
 Beckman, Katie
 Biggs, Alice
 Black, Sara Fern
 Bond, Arthur E.
 Brock, Elva
 Bryant, Elvora J.
 Carlisle, Edwin B.
 Christophel, Allen B.
 Coble, Myrtle
 Crouse, Howard L.
 Cunningham, Daniel R.
 DeLashmit, Maude
 Dodds, Elizabeth
 Donohue, Loretto
 Doolittle, Nina
 Duff, Zella B.
 Eavey, Marie H.
 Edmondson, Doris
 Edwards, Lem
 Emmert, John
 Felton, R. B.
 Gastino, Eva
 Gehring, Margaret
 Getzendanner, Edna
 Glidden, Will
 Graves, Alva
 Guard, Melba
 Hadden, Lulu
 Haines, Laura
 Hamilton, Floyd
 Hargitt, Richard N.

Harper, Geraldine
 Harris, Martha
 Hart, Robert C.
 Hedges, Ira J.
 Heltenburg, Cleve
 Henderson, Mary C.
 Hile, William
 Hoggatt, James R.
 Hogue, Rachel Cohee
 Holderman, LaVon
 Hunt, Walter
 Hyneman, Edna
 James, William H.
 Jarrett, James J.
 Jones, Eva
 Kessel, W. H.
 King, Eliza
 Lee, Jessie
 Leech, Leona
 Marlette, Ida
 Martin, Gold
 Martin, Mary Louise
 Mayes, Edna Service
 McCarty, Florence
 McComas, Virginia
 McCoy, Frances
 McCutchan, Ella
 McCutcheon, Olive
 McFarland, Martha E.
 Middleton, Ida E.
 Miller, Ethel
 Morgan, Flora
 Morlock, Claude
 Murphy, Rose

Ocker, William A.
 Orton, Ora
 Parker, Florence
 Parker, George A.
 Peacock, Cynthia
 Peden, Ernest
 Pickerel, Mary
 Plummer, Margaret
 Pugh, Florence J.
 Ray, C. B.
 Reed, Grace
 Reid, Henry J.
 Scholer, Florence
 Scholz, E. W.
 Shenefield, B. C.
 Shields, Katherine
 Smith, Bertha
 Smith, Vera LaMotte
 Steinfeld, Hattie
 Stephen, Selma J.
 Strong, Jessie
 Swarens, Daniel
 Talbert, Helen
 Voight, Mary K.
 Wagner, Maude Sturken
 Ward, C. S.
 Ward, L. C.
 Wasson, Isa
 Westfall, Ida B.
 Wilkinson, Flora
 Wise, Cora
 Wolfe, Gilderoy
 Yeley, Alberta Bruce

IOWA

Anderson, Anne K.
 Anderson, Wanda
 Anthony, Martina
 Bidlack, Olive Grace
 Carlson, C. Donovan
 Carpenter, Jeanette
 Cessna, Howard Orange
 Chehock, Henry W.
 Cramer, Mrs. W. F.
 Dahm, J. N.
 Deming, Katherine L.
 Edgington, Myrtle
 Flynn, Mrs. Anna
 Foster, Charlotte
 Foxwell, Mary A.
 Fry, Leota

Fuller, Mary Adele
 Gould, Ira E.
 Gregg, Warren B.
 Guernsey, Kathleen S.
 Hart, Mrs. Irving H.
 Hiatt, J. E.
 Hofer, Joseph S.
 Horchen, B. J.
 Howe, Morrison Y.
 Hughes, Mrs. R. M.
 Kessler, Sue A.
 Kyle, Joanna
 Marshall, George E.
 McLaughlin, George A.
 Merriman, Mrs. Martha
 Herbold

Miller, Mary
 Oppelt, Leah
 O'Shea, Anna A.
 Owens, Mrs. Eliza
 Parks, Joseph
 Reed, Mrs. Frances B.
 Rosser, J. W.
 Seerley, Homer H.
 Smith, H. G.
 Steffins, Cornelius M.
 Stewart, C. C.
 Sutherland, Leone
 Vinton, Lois
 Wallace, Warren L.

KANSAS

Allen, George A., Jr.
 Brooks, John R.

Kiner, Rebecca D.
 Senter, Frank

Smick, Caleb

LOUISIANA

Boyd, Thomas Duckett

Houston, B. L.

Morris, Agnes

MASSACHUSETTS

Avery, Mrs. Jeannette
 Boyden, Arthur Clarke
 Cole, S. Adelaide
 Davidson, Isobel D.
 Delgado, Mrs. Elizabeth C.
 Dutton, Maude M.

Emery, Clintie A.
 Frawley, Mary
 Gallagher, Oscar C.
 Guyton, Mine
 Harding, Ernestine
 Molloy, Hugh J.

Morris, Mary
 Pollard, Loila D.
 Rye, Lewis E.
 Sharkey, Mary T.
 Simpson, Mildred E.
 Winship, Albert E.

MICHIGAN

Auringer, Mrs. Albert S.
 Bellinger, Leone E.
 Benkelman, W. F.
 Blay, Mrs. Mildred S.
 Bogema, Mrs. Ethel G.
 Brough, Lettie Ida
 Brown, Lillian M.
 Cardinal, Eva M.
 Carpenter, Charles M.
 Carter, Florence M.
 Cleary, Ida J.
 Cleary, Mrs. Sybil
 Cornwell, Katherine L.
 DeBarr, Clara
 Dickinson, Sarah
 Emendorfer, Eva
 Emery, Lottie
 Farrell, Mrs. Margaret C.
 Field, Charles F.
 Foster, George S.
 Gilmore, Anna M.
 Hambleton, E. C.

Hare, Mrs. Henrietta B.
 Hendrick, Mrs. Mary A.
 Hilton, Nina
 Hise, Susa Van
 Hornsby, Lee
 Howard, Benjamin F.
 Hubbard, James
 Johnson, Mrs. Martha D.
 Kaye, James H. B.
 Kenaga, Harold
 Kenyon, Harold L.
 Kirtland, James E.
 Knapp, Thad Johnson
 Lamb, Ida A.
 Laurikane, Edith L.
 Lawther, Mary
 Lohr, Mrs. Ruth B.
 Luten, Alice
 Mann, LaVerne B.
 Matney, Mrs. Ardell
 McCulloch, A. J.
 McLough, Clarence D.

Monaghan, Owen
 Neal, L. May
 Orr, Elizabeth B.
 Payne, John W.
 Ragatz, Mrs. Nancy L.
 Robinson, Minnie
 Shea, Bridget
 Sheldrew, Ruth M.
 Sherzer, William H.
 Shields, Harry
 Slowinski, Mrs. Roman
 Smith, Gertrude B.
 Stephenson, Clarence
 Stow, Nellie
 Tagge, Arthur C.
 Taylor, Fred M.
 Thieman, Anna L.
 Tripp, Alice M.
 Troutman, Oliver W.
 Warner, Henrietta
 Wells, Mrs. Alice B.
 Wheeler, Mrs. Frankiedell

MINNESOTA

Albright, Nora
 Borup, Sophie C.
 Bryant, Mrs. Lora
 Donlin, Mrs. Margaret
 Eckert, Alice
 Eittrich, Theresa
 Fisher, H. Edith W.
 Gardner, Marie
 Guise, John M.

Hern, Augie K.
 Ingram, Lulu
 Jacobson, M. L.
 Jenness, Josephine
 Johnson, Antoinette
 Johnson, Nettie
 Lackersteen, Wynne V.
 Litzke, Arline
 McConnell, J. M.

Miller, Maude J.
 Power, Anna
 Race, S. J.
 Seymour, Jane A.
 Spencer, Nellie
 Thomson, Mrs. Agnes
 Wondrew, Ella
 York, Georgia

MISSISSIPPI

Bass, E. E.

Ramsey, Mrs. W. E.

MISSOURI

Alexander, Ed. T.
 Anderson, I. R.
 Arnold, Katherine F.
 Baskin, Anna
 Beal, Fred, Jr.
 Biggs, Ramona
 Bloom, Sarah
 Brown, Margarette G.
 Buehler, Maggie E.
 Burge, Mrs. Mattie M.
 Bush, Blanche
 Callier, Berenice
 Calvird, Enid
 Cole, Carol Skinner
 Carbey, Myrtle
 Cowherd, Coleby
 Curry, Jennie Fearn
 Del, Banco Miriam
 Denison, E. B.
 Downing, Robert E.
 Eaton, Marie B.
 Finney, Mexico
 Fish, Daniel
 Fisher, Althea
 Flaven, Mrs. Catherine

Gathright, Lloyd
 Hagan, Stella
 Hageman, Bertha
 Harris, Grace
 Haskell, Bessie
 Hifner, W. D.
 Hollowell, Lillie L.
 Holmes, Mrs. Esther M.
 Hudson, M. Ether
 Hurt, T. M.
 James, George O.
 Johnson, Mrs. Florence M.
 Kmety, Jan
 Knight, R. F.
 Knofer, Frances
 Koelle, Laura M.
 Landers, Elander
 Leezy, W. T.
 LeHew, Ludie
 Levy, Rosa
 Linton, Ida M.
 Ludwig, William A.
 Madden, Mary
 Maloney, Mary V.
 McChesney, Mrs. Florence R.

McCrea, Annie
 McEnnis, Bessie M.
 McLeod, Nellie
 McNew, Zella
 Miller, Delle
 Olson, Rose W.
 Organ, Minnie
 Pickel, Myra Margaret
 Pogue, Lucille
 Priess, R.
 Robertson, Georgia
 Runyon, Laura L.
 Schmalhorst, Christine
 Schmidt, Ada
 Sears, Victor L.
 Sellers, Jessie
 Shane, Lucy V.
 Sharp, Anne M.
 Shaighnessy, Margaret A.
 Shaw, G. W.
 Shearmire, Emma
 Shinnick, M. Isabelle
 Shoope, Katheryne
 Simpson, Julia
 Smith, Mrs. G. Byron

Stone, Mable
 Swift, Edgar J.
 Trusty, Etta
 Tyler, Eleanore
 Vandiver, W. D.
 Vickers, Arctic Clay

Walters, William W.
 Ward, Buford
 Waterman, Mrs. Mabel
 Watts, Susie
 Wayland, Bettie Lue
 Weidemann, Marie F.

Wells, Anna
 White, Lillian
 Whiteford, Mrs. J. A.
 Yount, Mrs. Gertie Doggott

MONTANA

Brome, Frances
 Finlayson, Mrs. Jean
 Hansen, Minnie
 Kay, John M.
 McKenzie, Mrs. Charles
 Mercier, Elsie

Nesing, Mabel C.
 Parker, Mrs. F. B.
 Paul, Lolita
 Pederson, Clara
 Pennington, W. W.
 Potts, Bess C.

Powell, Gerald G.
 Russell, Leilah Rommell
 Sullivan, Ella
 Wold, Gladys

NEBRASKA

Abbott, Frederick H.
 Ayres, George D.
 Beattie, Mabel
 Bell, Mrs. A. T.
 Beveridge, J. H.
 Blessing, Hermine
 Bohlken, Leotus
 Bonner, Mrs. Barbara B.
 Brown, Leona Belle
 Brown, Mrs. Marion Oliver
 Bryant, William M.
 Campbell, Martha
 Canaday, J. S.
 Carter, W. R.
 Cavanaugh, Zita
 Chase, Celia
 Clark, Anna Gray
 Clarke, L. B.
 Cockerill, Mary A.
 Conaway, Cora
 Conkling, W. M.
 Cowman, Ione

Davies, Dora M.
 Dick, Gerhard
 Dunlap, Alexander J.
 Emley, Mrs. Ray
 Ernst, C. J.
 Fossler, Laurence
 Fraser, W. Y.
 Giles, Hazel
 Frant, Flint
 Haney, Leta
 Harlan, William S.
 Hasik, Irene
 Herian, Emma Funke
 Herzog, Fay
 Horning, Eva Knox
 Jeffords, Mrs. J. M.
 Johnson, Cordelia
 Keebler, Anna M.
 Kuhn, Elizabeth Dorothy
 LaShelle, Grace
 Lock, Mrs. Helen
 Lowery, D. P.

Lundy, Hattie J.
 Majors, Thomas J.
 Murray, Mrs. James
 Murrish, Marjorie
 Noyes, Mrs. C. B.
 Pentzer, J. C.
 Ramey, W. N.
 Reed, J. M.
 Reilly, Clare
 Schuldt, Mrs. John
 Shedd, Harry G.
 Sherman, L. A.
 Snearly, Mrs. Emma
 Sohler, Cecelia
 Thomas, V. A.
 Updike, Vern L.
 von Schulte, H.
 Wallace, C. W.
 Watson, Julia P.
 Wirsig, O. A.
 Wirt, Julia M.
 Yerkes, Mason

NEW JERSEY

Brick, Francis A.
 Burd, Lucy H.
 Carr, Mary E.
 Faunce, Howard C.
 Flynn, Minnie V.
 Gernert, Marjorie M.

Haasz, Celia
 Hamm, Franklin P.
 Hibben, John Grier
 Krause, Carl F.
 Normandeau, Herbert M.
 Preuss, Ida B.

Roys, Alice C.
 Schuyler, Myrtle W.
 Smith, William Alexander
 Van Dyke, Henry

NEW MEXICO

Graham, Warren R.

NEW YORK

Baird, James
 Barto, Everett A.
 Beard, Stella
 Bolger, Rosetta
 Brown, M. Ethel
 Butts, Eva
 Cornell, Nellie
 Creahan, Nora F.
 Dunbar, Deborah
 Dwyer, Lillian
 Edson, Frank M.
 Fayette, William C.

Finegan, Thomas E.
 Fowler, Francis
 Gaffney, Edna
 Gillette, John U.
 Heath, Grace M.
 Kurtz, Mary E.
 Lane, May Rogers
 McKay, John
 McKee, James M.
 Newcomb, Anna E.
 Nichols, Hiram H.
 O'Donnell, Frank J.

Overacker, Minnie L.
 Power, Anna M.
 Rhodes, Elie A.
 Rickey, Matthew
 Riedel, Lois A.
 Schermerhorn, Elizabeth C.
 Shattuck, Edna W.
 Slaid, Mary E.
 Underhill, Ralph I.
 Van Rensselaer, Martha
 Wardlaw, Sarah
 Woods, Mary A.

NORTH DAKOTA

Cole, R. D.

Leonard, Arthur G.

OHIO

Caldwell, D. E.
Collins, J. E.
Cowden, Mrs. Martha P.
Culp, Mrs. Carrie T.
Devlin, Estelle M.
Dolbear, Mrs. Josephine

Dutenhaver, John A.
Fogarty, Laurie A.
Graham, George J.
Hall, Charles S.
Littell, Mary
McClain, William

McVean, Etta
Ricker, Margaret Tracy
Scott, Grace
Tate, Davis D.
Whinnery, Ray E.

OKLAHOMA

Adams, W. A.
Antrim, Mrs. Eugene
Brandon, Mrs. R. J.
Bras, Kathryn
Breedlove, Mrs. Cecil
Buchanan, Lenore
Byers, Irma
Clayton, J. D.
Coldiron, Reed A.
Dale, Henry C.
Dark, Mabel
Dixon, Mrs. Emma
Dutcher, Emma

French, Ulys E.
Griffith, Walt B.
Hansaid, Harry
Howell, Alfred T.
Kaff, Ed.
Kernodle, Hortense
Kernodle, Miriam
King, Claude
Loy, Clyde V.
Maple, Clarence W.
Martin, W. H.
McDaniel, Belle
Miles, Arthur Dale

Mitchell, Mrs. Katie E.
Mock, Imamar Evelyn
Netherton, Noel E.
Palmer, Odell
Reece, LaVenia
Scott, J. W.
Sivells, S. B.
Smith, Lucile
Stubblefield, May
Wheeler, Commodore O.
Wiggins, C. E.
Wilkerson, J. N.

PENNSYLVANIA

Arnold, Laura
Bachert, C. W.
Ball, Charles F.
Bennett, Frank W.
Boyer, C. C.
Bright, Elizabeth E.
Brooks, John D.
Brown, Margaret J.
Brown, Mary Ida
Coolidge, Cora Helen
Cooper, Helen
Cooper, Joseph
Casper, Lucy
Davies, Mary Jane
Dean, Cecil H.
Derr, John F.
Dilkes, Beatrice
Eldon, James
Fox, Lena
Fundenberg, Mrs. Elizabeth
H.
Gallagher, Joseph M.
Gibbons, Leo
Goodlin, Mary G.
Herbert, George W.

Hickernell, Minerva
Hoke, Joseph M.
Holland, William Jacob
Irwin, Mrs. Belle
Keeler, Maria P.
Kidd, Howard C.
Kline, Jennie D.
Lady, Hiram C.
Lamb, Laura J.
Leiser, Barbara T.
Leonard, Cora A.
LeVan, Mrs. Eva
LeVan, Evelyn May
McGinnis, S. Ellen
McFarland, Elizabeth N.
Mead, Audrey
Meyer, Hermine
Miller, Allen P.
Miller, Mrs. Laura
Moyer, Henry M.
Norton, Alice
Payne, Pearl Alma
Pealer, Louise M.
Peffer, Robert Weakley
Perham, Mrs. Grace S.

Price, Elizabeth
Raabe, Amelia C.
Reinhard, Henry J.
Renn, Mrs. Amanda E.
Robb, Sarah Miller
Roberts, Jennie
Rynearson, Edward
Schulter, William C.
Schultz, John
Seyler, Alvin S.
Scott, Emma A.
Shull, Brinton M.
Speck, W. H.
Shiffert, Mrs. L. Arnet
Smith, David A.
Smith, George A.
Stephenson, Margaret A.
Stout, Amanda E.
Swift, Anna
Teel, Warren Floyd
VanFleet, Katherine May
Wilson, Mrs. Carrie
Yeingst, Wilbur M.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Bebb, Mrs. Morris
Bewey, Mrs. Rachel
Bostian, Howard R.
Brown, Fern
Camp, Mrs. Whit
Carson, H. P.
Cole, Bart
Cook, William
Cressman, K. H.
Dempster, Mrs. Wallace
Devine, Evelyn
Devins, Bessie Irene
Duggan, W. V.
Faught, John B.

Frieberg, August
Frye, Ethel
Graham, Grace Talem
Hall, C. S.
Halverson, Mrs. Jennie
Walker
Headden, William P.
Henry, C. M.
Kehrwald, Albert, Jr.
Kissell, Jennie
Lamb, Mrs. Winifred
Linka, Mrs. Eugene G.
McCauley, Pauline
McCoin, Helen

McLearie, John
Miller, Mrs. Jessie Kann
Neill, Henry
Papna, Anthony
Petersen, Kate R.
Piertz, Mrs. A. A.
Ramer, M. N.
Roberts, Mrs. G. T.
Sinclair, Clara
Smith, Frank Clemes
Smith, Samuel
Solberg, H. C.
Williamson, Lois

TEXAS

Bassett, Lilla Graham
Bayer, Anna
Beers, Mrs. Dove C.
Burrell, Julia Arthur
Carson, Mrs. Lily Bentley
Collins, Miss John Anna
Cooper, O. H.
Durham, H. L.

Ellis, J. N.
Howard, T. R.
Joiner, Anna Ruth
Ledlow, W. F.
Martin, Mary A.
McCall, Miss Ezel
Miller, Ruby
Miner, Wallace H.

Morgan, J. O.
Richmond, Mrs. S. A.
Ross, Thomas A.
Simmons, J. P.
Smith, Elizabeth May
Stubbs, Clara M.
Torbett, Drushia
Whatley, C. A.

VIRGINIA

Glass, E. C.
Hershberger, Marion
Hill, Albert H.

Jordan, Mrs. Della Crowder
Saville, Joseph Sidney
Ward, B. P.

Wood, B. I.

WASHINGTON

Dansingburg, Eva M.
Fagan, Charles

Johnson, J. E.
Parker, Mary A.

Reed, Joseph

WEST VIRGINIA

Brooks, Fred
Campbell, Ella
Fowler, Mrs. Marietta Uhl

Galloway, Sara
Hanifan, L. J.
Kessel, Velma

Johnson, Salome
Stewart, James S.
Weyer, Ada B.

WISCONSIN

Ainsworth, Fred C.
Ames, F. M.
Anderson, Catherine Welch
Anderson, George
Anderson, Phyllis Palmer
Apthorp, Mary E.
Beitling, Mary
Berry, Mary J.
Boley, C. U.
Brewer, Nina Wright
Bristol, Elsey Lois
Brown, Mary Ethel
Bumby, Mrs. Olive Wells
Burden, Mrs. Elva
Burke, Julia Ann
Bushnell, Jessie
Cairns, William B.
Chase, Mrs. Willard E.
Clark, Gertrude
Cole, Marshall Thatcher
Coughenour, Linn Simmons
Crabb, Mrs. Theodore
Crawford, Alma
Crowley, Bernard
Dapprich, Mrs. Emma
Davidson, Lottie
Davidson, Percy B.
Davies, Dora M.
Davison, Walter B.
Dell, Freeman B.
Denessen, Mrs. Arthur
Dodge, Florence
Dusenberry, Emily Hepler
Dysart, William Roland
Enklemann, William T.
Engel, Rilla
Evenson, Harlan
Fish, Carl Russell
Flynn, Margaret
Forrestal, Mary A.
Foster, Ida
German, Grant A.
Gerrard, Lillian Taylor
Gile, Mrs. Annie W. L.
Gordon, Frances F.
Gillespie, Wilhelmina
Menzel
Gretencord, Erna P.
Grimes, Miss Ronie
Grove, Mrs. Tessie
Hallock, Anna F.
Hartgerink, Mrs. Leta
Hatherell, Albert N.

Haverson, George B.
Hayes, Agnes Mary
Henry, Mary McKee
Henry, William A.
Hepp, Freda
Holcomb, Clara Sears
Howell, Elizabeth Brown
Hoyt, Marian
James, B. B.
James, Mrs. James H.
Jelson, William E.
Johnson, J. L.
Johnson, Viola Jones
Johnston, Margaret
Jones, John O.
Jones, Winifred
Joyce, Mrs. Thomas
Jung, John J.
Kahl, Henry
Keeley, L. S.
Kirwan, Michael
Kissell, Jennevr
Klues, Lewis
Koss, Mrs. Hermine
Lampert, Leone E.
Landgraf, Mrs. Katherine
Lehan, Catherine
Lewis, F. F.
Linderman, John H.
Lintzman, Norman
Luhman, Frederick
Lynch, Marie K.
Lyon, Cornelia Packard
MacDougall, Claire
MacMillan, Jessie Irene
Madson, Lydia
Matthews, Delnia
McCoy, Mrs. Elizabeth
McCulloch, Levi Gilmore
McFarlane, Margaret
McGrath, Mrs. James C.
Mapel, John J.
Miller, Irwin
Monsted, John W.
Morgan, Lucie E.
Moss, Joseph A.
Moyle, Mary A.
Muegenburg, Clara
Mulrine, Mrs. C. L.
Munro, Dana Carleton
Neil, Mrs. Lillian
Neuhaus, Barinka
O'Hanlon, R. J.

Olson, Agnes Mitchell
Parmenter, Alice
Peardon, Mrs. Julia W.
Peterson, Esther Evelyn
Priebe, Mrs. Marie Boyce
Puermer, Russell E.
Quaw, Mrs. Eva P.
Quinn, Josie
Ranyard, Hannan
Rice, Rudolph Hillery
Roberts, L. D.
Root, Mrs. Julia
Rouse, J. D.
Ryan, John E.
Sandberg, Mrs. Inga
Scarsi, Christine
Schaar, Adele F.
Schlaback, Elsie
Schwanze, Ann Marie
Seaman, G. B.
Sell, William
Seman, Anna M.
Shea, Nell E.
Smith, Albert W.
Smith, Mrs. Clara A.
Smith, George E.
Spicer, C. E.
Spoor, Mrs. Minerva
Starr, Harry Linn
Street, Ida M.
Taylor, Clara Baird
Thompson, Ella Mowry
Tiffault, Mrs. Mattie J.
Tomelty, Mary
Torney, Juliana F.
Treweek, Mrs. Mabel
Schroder
Tripp, Merriam Hibbler
Van Ess, Arlene
Walvoord, John G.
Warner, Dezelle T.
Warner, Elizabeth
Warner, Nellie
Waters, Sarah
Whitaker, Mrs. Letitia
White, Frank
Whitemarsh, Edith Sheldon
Willard, Helen Cheney
Williams, Mrs. Ella
Williams, Mrs. Fay S.
Williams, W. H.
Yapp, Nellie A.
Zimmer, Mrs. Carl

WYOMING

Downey, June

THE THIRTEENTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Delegates who attended the seventy-first annual meeting of the National Education Association in Chicago, Illinois, July 1-July 7, 1933. The classification of positions includes (1) directors and supervisors, (2) superintendents, (3) principals, (4) classroom teachers, (5) college and normal school presidents, (6) educational editors and secretaries, and (7) ex-officio members.

ALABAMA

- Brown, Charles A. (Associate Superintendent of Schools), Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.
 Bryan, John E. (Superintendent of Schools), Bessemer; Alabama Education Association.
 Douglass, V. J. (Supervisor), 5225 Seventh Avenue, South Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Drake, W. W. (Supervisor), 5225 Seventh Avenue, South, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Grove, Frank L. (Secretary), Alabama Education Association, 417-20 First National Bank Building, Montgomery; Alabama Education Association.
 Harmon, A. F. (ex-officio), State Superintendent of Education, Montgomery.
 Howard, Viola Pearl (Teacher), Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.
 Johnson, H. B. (Principal), 824 South Twentieth Street, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 McKinney, Leila M. (Teacher), Board of Education, Bessemer; Alabama Education Association.
 Norton, H. B. (Principal), 501 South Eightieth Street, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Smith, Leila May (Teacher), 1205 North Twenty-ninth Street, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Williams, J. D. (ex-officio), Principal, Avondale School, Birmingham.

ALASKA

- Beck, E. J. (ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, Nome; Alaska Educational Association.
 Campbell, Cleo (Teacher), Ingersoll Hotel, Ketchikan; Alaska Educational Association.
 Karnes, A. E. (ex-officio), Commissioner of Education, Juneau.
 Pepoon, Lucile (Teacher), High School, Douglas; Alaska Educational Association.

ARIZONA

- Boehringer, C. Louise (Supervisor), State Department of Education, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
 Davis, Mabel (Teacher), 1418 West Washington Street, Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
 Dexter, Mata E. (Principal), Washington School, Prescott; Arizona Education Association.
 Doyle, Mrs. Lena S. (Teacher), 246 North Tyndal Street, Tucson; Tucson Teachers Association.
 Goodwin, John B. (Teacher), Box 1627, Jerome; Arizona Education Association.
 Green, Maryann (Teacher), 353 Park Avenue, Prescott; Prescott Education Association.
 Grieder, T. G. (Superintendent of Schools), Winslow; Arizona Education Association.
 Hendrix, H. E. (ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Phoenix.
 Johns, Hester Mary (Teacher), Drachman School, Tucson; Tucson Teachers Association.

- Loper, John D. (Superintendent of Schools), Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
 Montgomery, Winona (Teacher), Phoenix Union High School, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
 Mullen, J. O. (ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, Jerome; Arizona Education Association.
 Naylor, Mary G. (Teacher), 410 East Speedway, Tucson; Tucson Teachers Association.
 Sawyer, W. C. (Principal), Willcox High School, Willcox; Arizona Education Association.
 Sheldon, Don R. (Superintendent of Schools), Holbrook; Arizona Education Association.
 Twining, Mrs. Lou (Teacher), Adams School, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
 Wivel, C. B. (ex-officio), 33 East Eighth Street, Tempe.
 Wickliffe, Chester (Principal), Balsz School, Tempe; Arizona Education Association.

ARKANSAS

- Chapline, M. Leona (Teacher), 105 East Twenty-fourth Street, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Christian, Nina (Teacher), 1500 Broadway, Little Rock; Women Teachers Association.
 Haley, H. H. (Superintendent of Schools), Hot Springs; Arkansas Education Association.
 Hirst, C. M. (ex-officio), State Commissioner of Education, Little Rock.
 McClurken, Mrs. Eva G. T. (Principal), Elementary School, Cato; Arkansas Education Association.
 McNeill, Mrs. Fred (Principal), Route No. 1, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.

CALIFORNIA

- Baldwin, Harold (Teacher), 5817 Mendocino Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
 Baldwin, Helen (Teacher), 325 Beverly Avenue, San Leandro; Oakland Teachers Association.
 Barber, Augusta (Teacher), 2919 North Broadway, Los Angeles; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
 Bell, Mrs. Mabel (Director), 1805 Grand Avenue, Santa Barbara; Santa Barbara City Teachers Club.
 Bernstein, Pauline (Teacher), 140 Twentieth Avenue, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
 Black, Mrs. Bess Newton (Teacher), 3435 Winslow Drive, Los Angeles; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
 Bond, R. Margaret (Teacher), 1717 Hope Street, South Pasadena; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
 Bonney, Wilbert H. (Principal), 307 East Alberta Street, Anaheim; California Teachers Association.
 Boone, Cora (Supervisor), 1562 Jackson Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
 Boyer, Fred A. (Superintendent of Schools), Coronado; California Teachers Association.

- Bradley, J. H. (Superintendent of Schools), Modesto; California Teachers Association.
- Brady, Mary Arline (Teacher), 841 Hampshire Street, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Brainard, Esther C. (Teacher), 1742 Meade Street, San Diego; San Diego Teachers Association.
- Bronsdon, Aileen (Teacher), 144 Thirteenth Street, Richmond; Richmond Teachers Association.
- Brúce, Robert (Superintendent of Schools), Santa Maria; California Teachers Association.
- Bunker, Celeste (Teacher), Niles; Alameda County Educational Association.
- Cagney, W. J. (Supervisor), Lancaster; California Teachers Association.
- Cain, Edgar Virgil (Superintendent of Schools), Gridley; California Elementary Principals Association.
- Cardozo, T. V. (Principal), Box 396, Riverbank; Stanislaus County Teachers Association.
- Carvell, D. Marie (Teacher), 4421 Mississippi Street, San Diego; San Diego Teachers Association.
- Chapin, Carrie Alice (Principal), 610 North Kenmore Street, Los Angeles; Principals Club of the Los Angeles City Elementary Schools.
- Clark, Olive E. (Vice-Principal), 129 East G Street, Colton; California Teachers Association.
- Cleaver, Ruby (Principal), 244 Monterey Road, South Pasadena; City Teachers Club of Long Beach.
- Cloud, Roy W. (Executive Secretary), California Teachers Association, 155 Sansome Street, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Cochran, Mabel (Teacher), 1329 Madison Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Cocking, Floyd W. (Teacher), 3770 Tenth Avenue, San Diego; California Teachers Association.
- Cohn, Flora N. (Teacher), 1500 Wooster Street, Los Angeles; City Teachers Club of Long Beach.
- Cosgrove, Anita (Teacher), 404 Fell Street, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
- Crandall, Dorothy (Teacher), 431 South Broadway, Santa Maria; California Teachers Association.
- Croad, J. Russell (Principal), 664 Fortieth Street, Sacramento; California Teachers Association.
- Cullen, Ellen V. (Teacher), 1262 Tenth Street, San Pedro; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
- Culler, Bess E. (Principal), South School, Redondo Beach; California Teachers Association.
- Curtis, Bessie M. (Teacher), 10 Cambridge Way, Piedmont; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Davis, Laura D. (Teacher), 6819 Converse Avenue, Los Angeles; City Teachers Club of Long Beach.
- Davis, W. N. (Superintendent of Schools), Box 184, Dinuba; California Teachers Association.
- Dermody, Mrs. Clyde (Teacher), Los Altos; Santa Clara County Teachers Association.
- Dressler, O. G. (Teacher), 1840 North Michigan Street, Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Drury, Louise (Teacher), 1428 Alice Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Duncan, Ruby (Teacher), 529 C Montana Avenue, Santa Monica; Santa Monica Teachers Association.
- Dutro, Bertha (Teacher), 131 South Manhattan Place, Los Angeles; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
- Dyck, H. O. (Principal), 438 North Kenmore Avenue, Los Angeles; California Teachers Association.
- Eberhart, Roland F. (Teacher), 1007 Laurie Avenue, San Jose; Santa Clara County Teachers Association.
- Eckels, C. F. (Teacher), 2460 Cumberland Road, San Marino; California Teachers Association.
- Edmiston, Mrs. Eleanor (Teacher), 2928 Thirty-third Street, San Diego; San Diego Teachers Association.
- Ellis, Ethel (Teacher), 3835 Stockbridge Avenue, Los Angeles; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
- Engeseth, Mrs. Hazel M. (Teacher), 45 Cedar Avenue, Long Beach; City Teachers Club of Long Beach.
- Fahey, Nell (Teacher), 1100 Pico Street, San Fernando; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
- Farr, Jessie V. (Teacher), 405 West Adams Street, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association.
- Finney, J. J. (Principal), Box 552, Suisun; California Teachers Association.
- Fischer, Mrs. Leitha C. (Teacher), 2333 Ridgeview Avenue, Eagle Rock; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
- Florcken, Herbert G. (Teacher), 1723 Maynell Street, Modesto; Stanislaus County Teachers Association.
- Furbush, George E. (Principal), 1326 Clinton Avenue, Alameda; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Garrison, Mrs. Blanche (Teacher), 4259 West Fifty-eighth Place, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association.
- Garstang, Margery J. (Teacher), Box 212, Owensmouth; City Teachers Club of Long Beach.
- Gauker, Bertha (Teacher), 2839 Hope Street, Huntington Park; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
- Givens, Willard E. (President), California Teachers Association, 1025 Second Avenue, Oakland; California Teachers Association.
- Glendenning, Clara (Teacher), 226 Athol Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Gray, Mrs. Lutie M. (Teacher), 5523 Lexington Avenue, Hollywood; Los Angeles Elementary Teachers Club.
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